

The Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF

Secondary-School Principals

Proceedings
of the
**Thirty-sixth
Annual Convention**

NETHERLAND PLAZA HOTEL
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February 16-20, 1952
Part Two



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Service Organ for American Secondary Schools

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

(See March, 1952, issue of this publication for balance of Proceedings)

DISCUSSION GROUPS

Tuesday, February 19, 1952

GROUP XVII—What Are Some Promising Practices in the Junior High School?

Recognizing Pupil Achievement	P. J. Hill	6
Group Work in the Junior High School	Forrest E. Long	9
An Election Procedure	Alfred H. Skogsberg	13
Student Teaching in the Secondary School	F. N. Littleton	14

Wednesday, February 20, 1952

GROUP I—What Supervisory Practices Promote Teacher Growth and Co-operation?

Issue presented by	Carl G. F. Franzen	17
	Lloyd W. Ashby	26

GROUP II—How Can the Faculty Meeting Be Made Professional?

Issue presented by	Robert G. Andree	32
	W. R. Clemenson	87

GROUP III—What Educational Program Is Needed in the Junior High School?

Issue presented by	A. H. Lauchner	45
	Raymond S. Newman	50

GROUP IV—What Are the Current Trends in Guidance Services in the Senior High School?

Issue presented by	S. A. Hamrin	59
	Waldo J. Kindig	65

GROUP V—How Can Audio-Visual Materials Be Used in the School Program?

Issue presented by	Earl E. Sechrist	75
	B. Roy Daniel	83

GROUP VI—How Can Family-Life Education Be More Effective?

Issue presented by	Philip Schweickhard	88
	L. B. Howland	93

GROUP VII—How Can We Promote Desirable Teacher-Student Relationships?

Issue presented by	Otto Hughes	99
	R. B. Norman	102

GROUP VIII—The Contribution of Parent-Teacher Associations to Secondary Education

Issue presented by	Mrs. Edward N. Howell	112
--------------------------	-----------------------------	-----

GROUP IX—How Can Spiritual Values Be Included in the Secondary-School Program?

Issue presented by	Ray Black	116
	Henry C. Jensen	122

(Continued on next page)

THE CONTENTS OF THIS BULLETIN ARE LISTED IN "EDUCATION INDEX"

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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(TABLE OF CONTENTS—Continued from previous page)

GROUP X—What Student Personnel Services in the Secondary School?	
Issue presented by	Earl R. Sifert 191
	Mary P. Coore 194
GROUP XI—How Can the Poor Reader in the Secondary School Be Rescued?	
Issue presented by	Leonard E. Loos 129
	William S. Gray 135
GROUP XII—What Are the Administrative Problems of Consolidated Schools with Grades 1-12?	
Issue presented by	Albert O. Jenkins 143
	Phila Humphreys 147
GROUP XIII—What Kind of Testing Program in Today's Secondary School?	
Issue presented by	J. Thomas Hastings 154
	Elmer J. Erickson 160
GROUP XIV—How Can We Develop a Good Program for International Understanding?	
Issue presented by	Herbert C. Hawk 167
	Henry E. Hein 173
GROUP XV—What Programs of Civil Defense Are Needed in our Schools?	
Issue presented by	Mary E. Meade 180
	L. W. Huber 184
GROUP XVI—What Scheduling Practices Have Become Most Effective in Today's School?	
Issue presented by	Lemuel R. Johnson 189
<i>Monday, February 18, 1952</i>	
GROUP VII—What Are Your State Approval and Accrediting Standards for Secondary Schools?	
Issue presented by	H. Pat Wardlaw 198
	R. M. Garrison 201
	Philip A. Annas 203
	F. F. Heinemann 205
<i>Tuesday, February 19, 1952</i>	
GROUP VII—How Can We Improve the High-School Curriculum on the State Level?	
Issue presented by	Paul D. Collier 208
	William I. King 212
	Werner C. Fieckmann 215
	Arthur Carpenter 217
<i>Monday, February 18, 1952</i>	
GROUP XVIII—What Should the Principal Do to Initiate and Operate a Life Adjustment Education Program in His School?	
How Can the Principal Develop Understanding of Educational Needs in the School Community?	
Issue presented by	Matthew P. Gaffney 221
	Donald Roe 222
	A. W. Salisbury 225
	Spencer M. Rice 228
	Edson M. Bailey 229
<i>Tuesday, February 19, 1952</i>	
GROUP XVIII—What Should the Principal Do to Initiate and Operate a Life Adjustment Education Program in His School?	
How Can Common Learnings, Core Curriculum, and Improved Subject Offerings Be Used in Life Adjustment Education?	
Issue presented by	Lloyd S. Michael 232
	George R. Broad 239
	D. F. Dean 242
	Donald H. McIntosh 246
	Raymond G. Wilson 249
<i>Monday, February 18, 1952</i>	
GROUP XIX—What Should the Secondary-School Principals' Associations Do to Promote Life Adjustment Education?	
What Basic Policies Are Essential in a State-Wide Life Adjustment Education Program?	
Issue presented by	Glenn F. Varner 252
	F. M. Peterson 255
	Spencer W. Myers 258
	Leon S. Waskin 261
	James F. Spitzman 263
<i>Tuesday, February 19, 1952</i>	
GROUP XIX—What Should the State Secondary-School Principals' Associations Do to Promote Life Adjustment Education?	
How Do You Get a State-Wide Life Adjustment Education Program Under Way?	
Issue presented by	Stephen Romine 266
	J. G. Umstadd 268
	R. F. Casner 273
	H. Pat Wardlaw 275
	Ablett H. Flary 277

(Continued on next page)

(TABLE OF CONTENTS—Continued from previous page)

Wednesday, February 20, 1952

GROUP XVII—What Should the Principal Do to Initiate and Operate a Life Adjustment Education Program in His School?

How Does a Local School Co-operate in a State-Wide Program of Life Adjustment Education

Issue presented by	T. H. Broad	280
	Doe Randall	281
	Harold C. Hand	281

How Does a State-Wide Life Adjustment Education Program Operate to Help Local Secondary Schools?

Issue presented by	C. W. Sanford	282
	Francis W. Brown	282
	Galen Jones	288

GENERAL SESSIONS

First General Session

Greetings by	Claude V. Courter	289
	Elmer W. Kizer	291
Critical Issues in Secondary Education	Harold C. Hunt	292

Second General Session

Junior High-School Section

The Role of the Junior High School	Harl R. Douglass	303
Improvements in the Junior High School Program	Roy L. Arnheim	311
A Sound Educational Program for Our Day	Malcolm B. Keck	317

Senior High-School and Junior College Section

Is Education in Danger?	Richard B. Kennan	327
Meeting the Attacks on Education	Belmont Farley	334
Understanding Our Secondary Schools	Louis H. Braun	346
How to Prevent Attacks on the Schools	Harold C. Hand	354

Annual Banquet

Greetings from England	J. Roger Carter	365
Education for America's Role in Today's World	Walter H. Judd	366
What Makes Schools Better?	Harold Benjamin	374

Third General Session

Religion in Our Lives as Educators	Raymond Walters	379
--	-----------------------	-----

Reception

.....	384
-------	-------	-----

Fourth General Session

Evening of Music	384
------------------------	-------	-----

Fifth General Session

Education and the National Security	John H. Fischer	385
The Implications of Universal Military Training for Youth and Education	Ralph W. McDonald	395

Sixth General Session

Junior Town Meeting	403
---------------------------	-------	-----

Seventh General Session

Building A Faith for Today's World	Brook Hays	404
Civil Defense	Clyde W. Meredith	404
At Home in One World	John H. Furbay	405

Eighth General Session

Selected Acts by Cincinnati High School Students	417
--	-------	-----

Ninth General Session

Education and American Democracy	Jesse Stuart	418
--	--------------------	-----

Annual Business Meeting

.....	435
-------	-------	-----

Financial Reports

.....	438
-------	-------	-----

Constitution

.....	440
-------	-------	-----

Book Column

.....	443
-------	-------	-----

News Notes

.....	496
-------	-------	-----

(See March, 1952, issue of THE BULLETIN for Part One.)

Proceedings of the
Thirty-Sixth Annual Convention

of the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Netherland Plaza Hotel, Cincinnati, Ohio

February 16-20, 1952

Part Two

CONVENTION THEME:

BETTER CITIZENS THROUGH BETTER SCHOOLS

DUE to the large number of participants on the program of the Convention, the Proceedings appear in two parts. This issue of THE BULLETIN is Part II. It includes the balance of the papers presented in Discussion Groups, the Proceedings of all the General Sessions, the Business Meeting, and the Annual Financial Report of the Association.

THE National Association of Secondary-School Principals is the department of secondary-school administration of the National Education Association of the United States. It is the professional organization for all who are interested and engaged in the administration of secondary education. The Association publishes THE BULLETIN and STUDENT LIFE, each eight times, monthly, during the school year from October to May. It conducts research studies in secondary education and has many services for members. Individual membership is five dollars per year, payable to the Executive Secretary, Paul E. Elicker, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

The following is a report of the balance of the Proceedings of the Thirty-Sixth Annual Convention held at the Netherland Plaza Hotel, Cincinnati, Ohio, from February 16 to 20, 1952.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals does not necessarily endorse any individual group or organization or opinion, ideas, or judgments expressed in any of the papers encompassed in these Proceedings.

Discussion Groups - Continued

(See March, 1952 issue of the BULLETIN)

Group XVII (Tuesday)—TOPIC: What are Some Promising Practices in the Junior High School?

CHAIRMAN: *Homer L. Berry*, Principal, West Side Junior High School, Little Rock, Arkansas

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Stanley S. Foote, Principal, Belvedere Junior High School, Los Angeles, California

James D. Coon, Principal, Estee Junior High School, Gloversville, New York

RECOGNIZING PUPIL ACHIEVEMENT

P. J. HILL

ANY attempt at stating what Junior High School Number Five is doing as it endeavors to depart from the traditional in recognizing pupil achievement, would be incomplete without a brief sketch of the incidents which led up to the reorganization of the school in 1946. From the date of occupancy, March 10, 1924, to July 5, 1945, the building now known as Junior High School Number Five was known as the New Lincoln Junior High School and was devoted exclusively to the instruction of Negro children by Negro teachers. On the latter date, the Trenton Board of Education began taking definite steps to abolish a school which housed a segregated group of its youthful citizenry. After changing the name to Junior High School Number Five and assigning six New Lincoln teachers to so-called white schools, the Board created a definite district from which the new school was to receive pupils. The doors of Junior Five were then opened to all pupils regardless of race, color, creed, or national origin, but it retained its all-Negro faculty.

As was to be expected, a relatively large number of Negro pupils transferred from what had been the segregated New Lincoln School to that one of the other four junior high schools which served pupils in their respective districts, but only a few white children put in appearance at Junior Five on the opening day of school in September 1945. This was not what some citizens wanted, but the administration was content to move slowly, working, no doubt, on the theory that no change in practice or procedure can succeed unless it is understood

P. J. Hill is Principal of Junior High School Number Five, Trenton, New Jersey.

by all of those concerned. More rapid accomplishments would have been more impressive, more easily observed, and on the surface more satisfactory to a few interested persons. The administration wanted real growth, which is slow and requires time to become deeply rooted.

As was implied above, the administration proceeded as it thought best for the children, teachers, and community in general. No outside group had anything to do directly with the plans and procedures. It worked on the assumption that the best way to bring about a better understanding between children and teachers and between the school and the community was to work for improved general school practices. There was and still is no "Trenton Plan," other than an evolving program to improve the ways by which pupils at Junior Five live, work, play, and learn together—another application of co-operative group planning designed to produce true democratic living.

With this sound administrative policy back of it, the school, with a faculty of over forty (three fifths of whom were white) opened its doors on September 9, 1946, to over four hundred fifty junior high and about five hundred elementary pupils. Then as now, no effort was made to ascertain the number of any racial group enrolled. To the faculty they were "Americans All" in an American School.

With a democratic administration, faculty, and pupil body, it became easy for the teachers to express their dissatisfaction with the methods of recognizing pupil achievement then being used in the school. To them it gave undue recognition to certain pupils for reasons that did not always seem valid. Moreover, emphasis was placed primarily on achievement in academic areas. Consequently, the Junior Teachers Council—working independently of the principal and vice-principal—undertook to give the school a broader system of pupil achievement recognition that would make it possible for a greater number of pupils to be honored for what they could do best. A condensed presentation of the Council's recommendations and the types of recognition Junior Five gives its honor pupils is stated below:

1. To each pupil who merits an "A" or "B" in all subjects during a rating period (there are four per school year) Junior Five presents an Honor Certificate in the school's colors, royal blue printing on white paper. These, like all merit awards, are given at an honor assembly.

2. To those pupils who make "A" or "B" in academic subjects only, but make "C" or lower in non-academic subjects, the school presents at the next honor assembly following an Academic Honor Certificate (black printing on blue paper). The subjects for which this award is given are listed below under their respective curriculum headings:

<i>Academic</i>	<i>Commercial</i>	<i>Practical Arts</i>
English	English	English
Mathematics	General Business	Mathematics
Social Studies	Social Studies	Social Studies
Latin or History	Guidance	Science
Science	Science	

3. Pupils who do exceptional work with their hands and receive "A's" or "B's" in all of their non-academic subjects, although they make "C" or less in their academic subjects, receive Non-Academic Honor Certificates (black printing on cream paper). The subjects falling under this classification are:

Health (Physical Education, Swimming, Hygiene)
 Music
 Art
 Shop (Auto, Metal, Wood)
 Home Economics
 Guidance
 Library Science
 Auditorium Extension
 Typing

4. In an effort to give proper emphasis to the development of good citizenship, a certificate, printed in blue on white paper, is awarded at the end of each semester to those pupils who "demonstrate those high qualities which go into the making of an outstanding school citizen."

5. If, at the end of a pupil's junior high-school career, the faculty finds that the pupil has received an award in a curriculum each rating period (twelve in all), it will present him or her an appropriate medal on the face of which is stamped the seal of the school and on the back engraved the pupil's name and type of award it is. The medals and the honors for which they are awarded appear below:

<i>Awards</i>	<i>Areas of Achievement</i>
Gold	Honor Roll
Silver	Academic Honor Roll
Bronze	Practical Arts Honor Roll
White Gold	Citizenship

In addition to the program of achievement recognition described above, this school makes use of such traditional devices as the athletic letter, money gifts from business and professional men in the Junior Five District at commencement time, reports to parents, news items in local newspapers, and self improvement awards.

Frequently unnoticed but really worth while is the casual, informal recognition which our pupils receive from their teachers and schoolmates in the classroom, shops, corridors, and on the yard. We believe the returns on the investment of a few praiseworthy remarks are equal to if not greater than any of the other.

No one at Junior Five feels that we have found the best devices and techniques for recognizing pupil achievement. We are conscious of the imperfections which exist in our efforts, but in fairness to all concerned we feel that we have made an honest attempt to correct some of the evils in recognizing pupil achievement which have plagued educators for years. More than this, we believe our methods have resulted in improved scholarship, citizenship, and an all around well-balanced growth and development of the American youth entrusted to our care.

GROUP WORK IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

FORREST E. LONG

IT was just a year ago now in New York when I suggested to Dr. Elicker that we have at least one session this year devoted to commendable practices in the junior high school. It seemed to me then, and it seems to me now, that so many of our convention speakers vie with one another in condemning school procedure. I had the impression that most commentators on education believe that it is not the proper thing to find many good things in modern education. Let me explain briefly the base upon which my observations are founded. I try to keep in fairly close touch with the junior high schools at all times by working in them, visiting in them, and by talking with many junior high-school teachers and principals. But these contacts, especially the visits, are limited in geographical distribution. So a couple of years ago a junior high-school principal (my wife) and I took a year's leave of absence and visited schools from coast to coast. Admittedly, even such a tour as this took us into relatively few schools. My work as an educational editor has brought me in touch with many schools widely scattered over the nation. Here again I admit that our look at the schools is not without prejudice for well we know that authors write mostly of their successes and seldom of their failures. But certainly much of what we have seen and read must be real.

One of the most encouraging signs we see in American junior high schools (and in other public schools too) is the fact that people, the interested people, are getting together and are solving the problems of the schools. The interested parties are getting together and they are talking things through. Parents and parent associations are meeting with teachers and pupils and boards of education. Teachers and principals and pupils are discussing their mutual problems and are coming to mutually acceptable conclusions.

Whenever I visit a junior high school now I am reminded of Lewis Carroll's "The Walrus and the Carpenter":

"The time has come," the Walrus said,
"To talk of many things:
Of shoes—and ships—and sealing wax—
Of cabbages—and kings—
And why the sea is boiling hot—
And whether pigs have wings."

The friends of public education report that over 1,600 citizen groups are now organized for the avowed purpose of supporting education. Pupils, in their home rooms, in their classrooms, in their as-

Forrest E. Long is Chairman of the Department of Secondary Education, New York University, New York, New York.

semblies, in their student councils, are discussing the problems that concern them most. And teachers are talking over their problems too—in faculty meetings, in local teachers' groups, in PTA's and in their own workshops and teachers' lounges. And when you consider the forces that are shaping junior high-school education in America, don't minimize the importance of the teachers' lounges. Maybe teachers are intimidated in faculty meetings; maybe they don't freely express themselves on local political issues; but in their lounges they take all questions in stride, they solve all financial, political, and social issues with dispatch and finality. As my wife reported on what she heard in the women's lounges and I reported on what the men in the junior high schools had said, we both raised our estimate of the importance of these buzz sessions.

I believe that no genuine friend of public education can fail to be concerned over the current wave of attacks on the schools. It is difficult to know just what even the most vocal of the opponents want of the schools, but stated one way or another it seems that they want the schools to be "safe." It almost seems as though some of the critics of the schools want the *right* persons to tell pupils, teachers, and principals just what to think. Just what is meant by a "safe" school is seldom made clear. "We want the schools to teach the American way." "We don't want subversive doctrines taught." It is now proposed in New York State that all textbooks, used in the schools, be examined for dangerous passages, *etc.*

I presume that it was in this spirit in which one American town recently burned books. In another school system the teachers were forbidden to use any book that "advocates a principle or a doctrine inimical to the system of American free enterprise." This may appear to be perfectly sound at first glance but an interpretation satisfactory to all responsible groups seems to be impossible.

In one community a junior high-school girl raised quite a commotion when she announced at the dinner table at home that she didn't think it would be too bad to live in Russia. It turned out that she might just as well have stated that she didn't think it would be too bad to live in Alcatraz or at the North Pole, for all she knew about life in any of these places. However, the critics of the school seemed to think that, in some way or somehow, the girl should have been taught, in school, that life in Russia is not so good. But these same critics thought that the schools should not teach in the schools about life in Russia. In other words, we should teach it but not teach it. This reminds me of the opposition that has been expressed to the teaching of topics on the United Nations or on UNESCO. And much opposition has been raised over the display of the United Nations flags in some schools. But in spite of all the censorship of books and teaching units and in spite of all the so-called or real intimidation, the schools are dealing with many vital issues. To keep

pupils in proper ignorance of "dangerous" or "unsafe" topics, we'll have to censor the movies, the television shows, the newspapers, the magazines, and the corner drugstore.

Do we ever stop to consider the magnitude of some of the problems our present pupils will have to solve in their day? How will they pay off the billions of war debts that we owe? How will they maintain a sound foreign policy in a troubled world? And we could go on indefinitely listing problems that we shall pass on to them. And who of us today knows enough to tell them how they should meet these issues in the years to come? They will have to work out the solutions to these problems pretty much as they are working out the solutions to their present school and social problems today. Surely no thinking person of good will actually wants us to teach our children merely to listen, merely to receive instructions that they are to follow. Few of our parents want us to produce docile, regimented robots. If pupils learn today only to listen and to follow directions, may they not look to some politician ten or twenty years hence to tell them what to think? No, if we are to teach them the American way, we'll continue to teach them to weigh the facts in a given situation and come out with conclusions that suit the occasion. Talking things through is as American as Vermont maple syrup, as indigenous as the Ohio River. The early American Indians held their tribal pow-wows; the early New England town meeting heard many shocking and presumably unpopular opinions expressed, and expressed openly. The general store with its pot-bellied stove was the center of the local forum for generations. And today he is a rare American who does not attend some sort of a convention now and then where he talks things over. Yes, talking things over is American.

I can't be sure of the extent to which the junior high schools of the nation are being intimidated. But I am certain that pupils and teachers and parents are expressing their opinions on many questions of great importance to them and to the nation.

Without doubt the coming presidential campaign will be full of charges and counter charges of "mink coats," graft in government, the Costellos, *etc.* Some of our most vocal politicians are saying that the cure for this corruption is for us to experience a great moral regeneration. But these same politicians don't give us much hope that this great moral regeneration of our people can really be expected. I am glad that many of the schools of the country are talking over the problems of graft and special privilege in their matter-of-fact ways. The groups of pupils who set themselves to study the problem of loading the school busses—who should be first and why—and who determine to have better safety protection at the corner street crossing and what is wrong with cafeteria manners are setting the groundwork for that great moral regeneration.

These pupils are learning that rotation of rooms in loading the busses is advantageous to the greatest number. They are learning

that petty graft and special privilege in school are paid for by all the pupils just as they must learn that petty or major graft and corruption in public office are paid for by all of us as citizens. When the student council of a junior high school suggested that it be announced over the public address system that a certain boy, who apparently was unwilling to take his turn, would be permitted to move to the head of the cafeteria line, he decided he preferred to await his turn. Such a special privilege for him would have made him very unpopular.

Murry Seasongood and his associates here in Cincinnati established a City Charter Commission that has given this city many years of good government. I am convinced that the Murry Seasongoods of other cities will find our junior high-school graduates more willing to support the cause of good local, state, and Federal government because of their co-operative group experiences in the junior high school.

In recent months I have watched with considerable care the Town Meetings of the Air. You may completely disagree with me, but I'm convinced that many junior high-school groups are dealing with social issues with just about as much maturity as we see in these Town Meetings of the Air. Persons who are not familiar with junior high-school procedure will hardly believe that we have heard such topics as some of the following dealt with in junior high schools: military training, conservation of natural resources, inflation, the Korean situation, the Suez Canal, Japan, Iran, the St. Lawrence Seaway, English monarchy and Prime Minister, possible candidates in the next presidential election, propaganda, newspaper editorials, organized labor—(Unions, Strikes), pedestrian safety, bicycle safety, school property and how it is paid for, cafeteria manners, conduct on the bus, slang, fads, reading as tool of citizenship, reliability of sources of research materials, advertising in radio, difference between fiction and fact and truth and rumor, and intellectual honesty. These are in no sense namby pamby mud-pie make-believe topics. They are real and they are vital to the future of America.

As Justice Douglas so well said: "If we are afraid of ideas, we will imperil our power and prestige." Thank Heaven many of our junior high-school parents, teachers, and pupils are not yet afraid of new ideas.

On August 5, 1945, our ability to kill was improved by what has been estimated as twenty million per cent. All the other explosives used in World War II were the equivalent of only a small amount of this new substance. Indeed physical change has come but, unless the American people can effect a corresponding social change, surely we can not survive and prosper. And we shall have to learn this new way of living at the grass roots—we can't be told what to do. Surely we shall need to talk things over—in our political campaigns, on the air, in our newspapers, in our magazines, on our farms, in our cities—yes, we'll need to talk over our problems and work out solutions wherever

we live and work and play. The junior high schools are not doing too badly in this respect. They are talking things over. Walt Whitman wrote that he heard "America singing—each singing what belongs to him or her and to none else." In this same sense I am glad to say that we can hear America talking—each talking about the thing that is important to him or to her.

AN ELECTION PROCEDURE

ALFRED H. SKOGSBERG

COLORED pictures and drawings have been used for years as instructional material. Most of these have been of the travelogue or similar type collections. The technique itself is not new but frequently some pupils turn up with a new twist.

The student council of Bloomfield Junior High School, Bloomfield, N. J., faced the problem of orientation in the election procedures, of 450 seventh graders and 125 new eighth and ninth graders from fifteen contributing schools. Since these election procedures follow in close detail the ones used in the state, it is a complex learning situation. There are many social skills involved in getting nominating petitions signed with the required percentages of grade signers, using the best approach to another student who is older and a stranger, starting and carrying through a political campaign, working in support of a candidate and the many other activities in a school-wide election. Not only was the student council concerned that these new pupils learn the detail of election mechanics, but they were more concerned about developing an understanding of the basic ideas fundamental to the whole concept of democratic elections and of the special importance of this one because of the large grant of power the student council has in this school organization.

At the suggestion of one of the council members, a committee was appointed to work with the audio-visual aids director, the advisers, and the administration to explore the possibilities of utilizing pictures to carry the message of the things to be done and the particular method of doing them. The council committee suggested the use of the 35mm. camera taking 2 x 2 slides to illustrate each detailed step of the election procedure. These were deliberately planned, posed shots. The committee used teachers and the principal as well as pupils in getting their illustrations. After the series was completed a larger committee projected them, discussed their faults, decided upon retakes and arranged the sequence. An explanatory script was then written and

Alfred H. Skogsberg is Principal of the Bloomfield Junior High School, Bloomfield, New Jersey.

recorded on tape. This recording was done by some of the pupils pictured in the slides. With this series and the script any member of the Camera Crew can produce the program for instruction in election procedures of either small or large groups.

The success of this election series stimulated the preparation of others. The one completed this past fall is about the Lost and Found Room and the school store. The election series was presented by an eighth grade councillor at the state student council convention in New Brunswick as an example of the way one council solved its orientation problem in a large school. This series has been used for two years with excellent instructional results.

When you consider the history of this project and its subsequent use, the conclusion is inescapable that the opportunities for learning are tremendous. The steps in planning, preparation, and evaluation, necessitating co-operation among pupils, administrators, teachers, and parents show the efficacy of the learning situation that results from an action program. The sum total of experiences during the construction of these series is a great force in adolescent development.

STUDENT TEACHING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

E. N. LITTLETON

I AM TO discuss "Student Teaching in Secondary Schools" as it relates to the general topic of "Promising Practices in Junior High Schools." If I wanted to quibble a bit on terms I might say that any kind of student teaching would promise something; if good student teaching—good teaching to follow; if poor student teaching—poor results later. But, of course, the planners of this program had in mind "promising" in its usual connotation of something desirable to come; and after a few preliminary remarks, I will confine my discussion to that area.

One criticism that is sometimes leveled at present day student teaching (with some justification) is that it sticks too closely to traditionalism and does not prepare teachers to work in the more progressive school situations. This criticism is especially frequent from those who are using the core curriculum; they say their core curriculum practices could make much faster progress if they could get teachers trained for that work. Admittedly, student teaching in a traditional school with traditional methods does not prepare the teacher to handle successfully core curriculum or some of the other newer methods. On the other hand I have doubted whether complete training in some of these newer procedures might not leave the young teacher unfitted to work success-

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fully in a traditional school, although some core curriculum experts have assured me that a teacher with such training would find it easy to shift to traditional methods; they point to the fact that most teachers have been taught in the traditional way and it would be easy for them to drift back to the way they were taught. That point is buttressed by evidence that is all around us in the student teaching field; we see how the supervising teacher has to work constantly with many of these college students to keep them from reverting to the formalistic methods by which they were taught.

Student teaching in a school using the newer procedures does, then, prepare this future teacher to meet the needs of modern youth in much better fashion, and helps the next generation of teachers to show some progress over the present and past generations. Unfortunately, most teacher training institutions are rather narrowly limited in the selection of schools where the student teaching will be done. Proximity to the institution is the limiting factor.

Student teaching on a considerable scale is good for the schools in which it is done. It constantly brings into the classroom the newer educational theories which the college student has heard in his classes and keeps the supervising teacher abreast of what is currently considered best. It is an excellent method of in-service training.

BLOCK PLAN

Most of us at Bowling Green, Ohio, are pretty well sold on the plan being currently used by the Bowling Green State University and by a few other teacher training institutions. This is sometimes called the block plan because the student teaching is all done in a block of time during which the student teacher has no other assignments or responsibilities. The Student Teaching semester is spent as follows:

1. One week of observation, usually in his home school before college opens.
2. Two weeks of intensive study of general and special methods in preparation for student teaching. During this time the student teacher contacts the supervising teacher under whom he is to work and does some observing in his classes.
3. Eleven weeks full time assignment to student teaching, during which the college student has only one campus assignment, a two-hour special methods class one night a week. During this eleven weeks the student teacher teaches approximately half time each day and spends the other half of his time at many other activities that enter into the responsibility of a teacher. The supervising teacher has full responsibility for assigning his time and is given a list of fifty-four suggested types of experiences that the student teacher should have. Here are just a few of them: supervised study, small group instruction, individual instruction, home-room supervision, study hall supervision, corridor duty, observing classes in other areas than their own, studying pupil records, cutting stencils, duplicating, typing, making

lesson plans, conducting field trips, preparing audio-visual materials, participating in recreational and assembly programs, attending faculty meetings, attending PTA and community meetings, etc. I find that our supervising teachers keep them so busy that they frequently have to give up temporarily some of their fraternity and sorority and social activities on the campus. They are really living the life of a teacher.

4. Three weeks off-campus teaching. Here they get another variety of experience in some distant school.
5. Two days back on campus for summation and evaluation of the semester's work.

THE SUPERVISING TEACHER

During the eleven weeks' student teaching period practically all of our classes are taught by student teachers. We are frequently asked by people from other cities, "Don't your parents object to having their children taught so largely by these inexperienced college students?" Our answer is, "Rarely." Possible parental objections can be met by careful observance of a few precautions:

1. The supervising teacher must see that the pupils get good instruction. We make it clear that the supervising teacher is responsible for everything that goes on in class and for the progress of the class.
2. Have a salary schedule high enough to secure and keep superior teachers.
3. Keep parents informed that:
 - a. With financial help from the University their children get better teachers than they could have without this help. Without it we could not attract as good teachers.
 - b. The total teaching situation, with a superior teacher and a student teacher is as good or better than under the full time of an average teacher.

Year after year when statistics become available showing the percentage of graduates of the teacher training institutions in the state, that have been employed, Bowling Green State University consistently stands high in the list. Those of us who have a part in teacher training like to think that the type of student-teaching our people get contributes materially to the success of these beginning teachers, meriting the confidence of the superintendents who do the appointing.

PARENTS JOIN LAY ADVISORY GROUP

Thirty-three parents of Evanston Township High School students, 13 women and 20 men, have accepted invitations to become members of a new Lay Advisory Committee, according to Dr. L. S. Michael, principal of the school. The purpose of this group is to discuss the school and its program and to make recommendations to the administration. Says Dr. Michael: "We believe that with this representative group of parents we will be able to keep in closer touch with the needs of the community and, therefore, more adequately perform our services."—*Your High School*.

Group I (Wednesday)—TOPIC: What Supervisory Practices Promote Teacher Growth and Co-operation?

CHAIRMAN: *William C. Reavis*, Professor of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

W. C. Garland, School Supervisor, State Department of Education, Columbus, Ohio

Howard D. McEachen, Principal, Shawnee-Mission High School, Merriam, Kansas

**WHAT SUPERVISORY PRACTICES PROMOTE
TEACHER GROWTH AND CO-OPERATION?**

CARL G. F. FRANZEN

THERE is no one, no matter how good he is, who cannot profit from suggestions offered by someone else. The adage that one is never too old to learn was evidently based upon this premise. Unfortunately, however, there are those who do not welcome any proffered assistance because they are so sure of themselves or because they have no confidence in the source of the help. There is another group which is left to fight its battles all by itself because there is no help forthcoming from anywhere.

The above situation is particularly true in our secondary schools. From the day that they begin to teach, many teachers are left entirely to themselves. No one ever visits them. No one ever asks them how they are getting along. The result is that they plod along, each in his own way, developing techniques of teaching that may or may not be good. Then they generate a superiority complex, especially after they have been put upon tenure, in that there is no one who can tell them what to do. They are a law unto themselves.

Much is being said and written on the subject of high-school supervision. The latest along this line is contained in a bulletin issued by the National Association of Secondary School Principals.¹ Like all other volumes on the subject, it deals with the general over-all problems of supervision, those that concern all teachers. Excellent suggestions are presented in the areas of the supervisory personnel, orienting new teachers, meeting individual differences, staff morale, curriculum development, demonstration teaching, classroom visitation, conferences, and evaluation, but there is only one

¹National Association of Secondary School Principals. *Supervisory Problems in the Secondary School*. Bulletin. Vol. 34 December, 1950. No. 174. Washington, D. C.

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contribution³ which touches upon problems that are intimately related to what a teacher teaches in the classroom. The field of supervision, as interpreted from the contents of the bulletin, is as wide as the whole field of secondary education. The question I wish to raise is: to what extent will all of the above techniques assist the teacher of general mathematics to be a better teacher of general mathematics and of boys and girls? The same question may be directed to the teachers of American history, office practice, first-year Latin, biology, orchestra, home mechanics, *etc.*, *etc.*

I was faced with this question twenty-five years ago, when I was given the task of organizing a course in high-school supervision at Indiana University. About the only material available on the subject at that time was in the field of elementary education. Consequently, my classes and I had to define what the nature of our approach was to be. We decided to follow the hard path, that of developing a technique and an instrument that would attempt to give specific rather than general assistance to the classroom teacher. Graduate courses in secondary school curriculum, administration, and measurement provided, we felt, the techniques befitting a program of general supervision.

THE PRINCIPAL AS SUPERVISOR

The first thing that we had to consider was: who is this supervisory individual? Bringing the matter down to brass tacks, we knew that, in the ordinary high school, among which the great majority are to be found, it could be only the high-school principal or the department chairman. Wherever there are two or more teachers teaching the same area, one of them has to be designated as head, or chairman, in order to maintain a line-staff administrative organization.

There were two things we discovered about the high-school principal that made his program of supervision a difficult one. The first was that his experiences as a teacher had been quite different from those of his counterpart in the elementary school. Except where a program of departmentalization has been established for the elementary grades, the teacher in the elementary school is a teacher of all the subjects for a given grade, with the possible exception of physical education, music, and art. A teacher may even have had the experience of teaching in two or more grades. The day comes when one of these teachers is elected to become a principal. When that does happen, his teachers are fairly willing to accept suggestions from him as to better ways to teach spelling, or decimals, or phonics, or nature study. Why? Because he has taught these same subjects himself. They, the teachers, feel that he knows whereof he speaks.

How about the high-school principal? Has he had the same teaching experiences as his teachers have had? By no means. In order to

³*Ibid.* Frederick, Leo. "Teacher Evaluation of Pupil Learning." pp. 260-269.

become a secondary-school teacher his own preparation has had to be, ideally, in not more than two specialized areas, and the trend is to have these as closely related as possible. Suppose, then, that he, the principal, was once a teacher of science and mathematics. It doesn't take much imagination to picture the attitude of the teacher of senior English, if this principal, with the mathematics-science background, should venture to tell this teacher how he might improve his teaching of senior English. "Why—y—y! The very idea," he would sputter. "Just think of the nerve of him!" Suppose the principal had been a successful basketball coach. We shall leave some blank spaces...for the response.

What is the second difficulty that besets the high-school principal in carrying on a supervisory program? It is the nature of his job. In 1946, there were sixty-four per cent of the nation's schools that had an enrollment of less than 200 pupils. An examination of the duties of the staff members of these schools will reveal that the individual designated as principal is hardly more than a head teacher. In a six-period day he may have two periods to spend in his office. Since he has little, if any, clerical assistance, he has to be his own clerk. He makes out absence excuses, answers the telephone, interviews pupils, parents, and salesmen, and makes out the reports for the state department of education. Whenever he finds time to hold a faculty meeting the program consists of matters of school routine. If he can keep peace in his official family, he considers himself fortunate. That is about the extent of the kind of supervision that he can offer to his teachers.

It is true that a man's job can be what he makes it. It might be possible for the principal of a five-to-seven-teacher school to initiate a supervisory program as outlined in the bulletin, but the chances are very much against it. The building facilities, the financial support of the community, the attitude of his school trustee or board of education, and his own personal inadequacies are factors which must be considered. We, in our enthusiasm to advocate all sorts of ways to make for better schools, often overlook the composition of the individuals who man these smaller schools. They are young and inexperienced, or they are old and set in their ways. Those in between have moved on to larger and greener pastures. They become the ones who can put into operation the new and better techniques that we develop and present to them, or which they themselves develop.

But that is not always the case. Even when a principal has been relieved of all his teaching duties, he still may not be a good supervisor. He may fall into one of two categories. It has been some time since he has had any graduate courses in Education, so that he has had an opportunity to forget much that aroused his enthusiasm in those early days. He sits in his office or putters around in the halls as if it were his job to see that every little detail of routine is carried out. He has not reached the stage where he is able to delegate these minor

tasks to clerks or committees, nor does he have a bold idea as to just what is expected of him as leader and guide.

At the opposite extreme is the principal who delegates to others everything that he can pass on to them. He is so busy with the administration and executive functions of his job that, all too often, his only contacts with his teachers are through department heads or committees. And, if any supervisory activities are carried on in his school *via* these same committees and department heads, they are of the type described in the bulletin.

When my classes and I found ourselves faced with the situations which have been described, the busy teaching principal, the personal inadequacies of the principal, his preparation as a teacher of a specialized area or two, his ignorance of what to do when he was in a position to do something, and the general nature of the secondary school supervisory program, when one was operating, we decided to see what we might do in order to help the classroom teacher. Our first efforts were just as idealistic and optimistic as those proposed by most of us professors of secondary education.³ We developed a scheme of teacher inter-visitation, and committee and faculty discussions which would result in the development of what we called improvement sheets. Our idea was that the principal would hold regular meetings of his faculty as a committee of the whole to study and discuss their teaching problems, and that out of these discussions would emerge an itemized list of all the good activities which teacher and pupils were supposed to perform in the teaching of a particular subject, such as world history, first year French, English literature, chemistry, beginning type-writing, physical education, and the like.

What actually happened was that it was the members of my classes, over a period of twenty years, who did the developing of these improvement sheets. Then it was that we realized how visionary our original plan had been. The principal of the small high school would have had no more time, no more know-how, and no better facilities to direct his faculty in the construction of improvement sheets in the separate subject areas than he would have to carry on any other type of general supervisory technique. But we did feel that we had produced an instrument which he might use to advantage. Especially would this be true of those who had had the privilege to assist in the construction or revision of the original improvement sheets.

CONSTRUCTION OF IMPROVEMENT SHEETS

Now what are these improvement sheets, and in what ways do they make a contribution to teacher growth and co-operation? There is as much individuality between two different improvement sheets as there

³Franzen, Carl G. F. "Plans for the Supervision of Teaching by the Busy High-School Principal." *High-School Principals Conference*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University. Vol. III, No. 2, November 1926, pp. 9-16.

is between two individuals, although the major structural form is along somewhat similar lines. Each one starts out with a series of postulates or aims for the teaching of the course. There is, for example, no value in teaching geometry unless it is taught in order to achieve certain ends. These are the ones upon which there seemed to be general agreement.

1. To develop an appreciation of fundamental spatial relationships.
2. To increase familiarity with geometric forms common to nature, art, and industry.
3. To inculcate ideals of precision of thought and statement in geometric proof.
4. To put new meaning into arithmetic and algebra and lay a foundation for further work in mathematics and other sciences.
5. To recognize the logical sequence of relationships which exist in geometry and allied subjects.

The aims are followed by two or three divisions, one for equipment and the mechanical aspects of the classroom, one for teacher activity, and one for pupil activity. Some improvement sheets do not include the first of these three phases. Under teacher activity are listed the presumably desirable techniques which are used by good teachers. Under pupil activity are listed those desirable things which pupils are supposed to perform under a good teacher. Here are samples of both types.

Teacher Activity

Yes No

Does the teacher require the pupils to give authority for all statements made?

— —

Are unique and interesting historical facts about theories presented to the class?

— —

Does the teacher give sufficient practice in the applications of formulas to numerical problems?

— —

Is there a variety of proofs developed for an exercise due to a variety in methods of attack?

— —

Pupil Activity

Are the drawings those of general figures?

— —

Do construction lines show clearly?

— —

Do pupils clearly differentiate between hypothesis and conclusion?

— —

Do pupils give authority for statements made?

— —

Do pupils use the geometric vocabulary intelligently?

— —

Do pupils suggest illustrations or every-day applications of the proofs or exercises in the lesson?

— —

At the end of each improvement sheet there is a special bibliography, each reference of which is related to some specific item under teacher or pupil activity. The purpose is to acquaint the user with a more or less authoritative statement for the major suggestions that have been given.

It will be noted that each item is stated in interrogative form. What will not be so readily discerned is that each question is so worded that a check in the "yes" column signifies that the teacher is performing a desirable activity, and that a check in the "no" column means that there is an absence of a desirable activity. A complete checking of all the items would then produce a profile of the presence and absence of supposedly⁴ good teaching practices. A teacher should be given all the credit possible for what he has done. He should be given all the encouragement and help possible to do what he has not done. That is the reason for the name "improvement sheets."

APPLICATION OF IMPROVEMENT SHEETS

So much for the construction. Now, what about the application? First of all, if the principal has in his possession a set of these improvement sheets,⁵ he does not have to feel at such a loss in his supervisory relations to his teachers. "He who runs may read." He who reads may also learn. A perusal of any one improvement sheet will give the principal some idea as to what to expect in the way of desirable activities in the classroom to which it applies. We do not claim that he will become an overnight authority on the teaching of that particular subject, but we do believe that he will gain confidence in himself and support from his teachers. Instead of talking to them in the general terms common to all teaching activities, he has something specific upon which to base his comments. And it is our claim that it is this kind of help which the teacher wants and needs.

Before any classroom visiting is done, the teacher should be furnished a copy of the improvement sheet for study and criticism. He may not agree with all the items. That is his privilege. If he can furnish evidence that there is a better way to achieve the aims than the one given, let him substitute or add it. After all, the improvement sheet itself is a composite of what teachers and authorities have agreed upon as comprising the better known practices. Consequently, any improvement sheet can stand constant revision and improvements.

The teacher may use the improvement sheet as a self-checking device. Such a procedure would be most applicable in those small schools to which we have already referred, where the principal spends most of his time teaching. It stands to reason that not all of the teacher and pupil activities will be found to occur every time a class meets. These activities represent what we would expect to find at some time or another throughout the semester or year. However, if the teacher should check the items on the improvement sheet against his

⁴The word "supposedly" is used because there is little so-called scientific evidence that these items will produce the best results. The items, or questions, represent the consensus of reputable teachers as to what they, in their experience, have found to bring more satisfactory results in achieving their aims.

⁵Franzen, Carl C. G. *Improvement Sheets for the Teaching of High-School Subjects*. Wm. C. Brown Co., Dubuque, Iowa, 1951.

own teaching, he would, in all probability, check "yes" or "no" for all the items. But, in the case where the principal or department chairman should observe his teaching, then it is that only those items would be checked which would apply to that particular lesson.

In the above paragraph we have assumed that the improvement sheet may be used in two ways, by the teacher and by someone who observes. If the teacher is the only one to use it, then it becomes, as we have said, a self-checking instrument. Periodically, he can check himself to see how much improvement he is making in adding desirable activities to the "yes" column. If the improvement sheet is used by an observer who may be the principal, the department chairman, or another teacher, there is an opportunity to compare and discuss the checking as done by the observer and that already done by the teacher. In other words, we have, more or less, a common ground upon which both may base any suggestions for ways in which improvement may be made. An attitude of inquiry is one that should characterize both parties, because, unless the spirit of co-operation is present, there can, otherwise, be no willingness to improve.

We are not here entering into the techniques of visiting and conferring, because these have been adequately dealt with in the *BULLETIN*. We are, however, suggesting that a school which makes use of these improvement sheets needs an up-to-date professional library. This library should be built up as a principal-teacher co-operative project, something that even the smallest school can do. Naturally, the size of this library will depend upon the size of the staff and the funds that can be made available. It should include representative books in the major areas of secondary education, and, for our particular purpose, books in the field of general and special teaching methods. There should also be available to all teachers the more general secondary education journals. In addition, it should not be expecting too much of each teacher that he subscribe to the *National Education Association Journal*, to the publication issued by his state teachers' association, and to one magazine in his own special field or fields.

The reason for this emphasis on the professional library is that many of the references on the improvement sheets come from these books. It is possible, then, for those teachers who wish to do so, to check on the items in an improvement sheet, and, mayhap, to find better ones. By keeping up with current periodical literature, both general and special, the teacher may also find new suggestions for improved techniques that may be added to or substituted for those on the improvement sheet.

In conclusion, let us state that we do not expect the educational millennium to arrive with the use and application of these improvement sheets. They are one among many contributions which are being offered in an attempt to improve methods of secondary school supervision. There are all kinds of ways to improve teaching. Of that there is no question. But what my classes and I have tried to do has been to

analyze the teacher's problems in terms of what it is that he teaches. It is on this point that most discussions on secondary school supervision find themselves in the wide, open spaces. Our hope is that we are presenting a way that might fill the gap.

IMPROVEMENT SHEET FOR TEACHING OF CONSUMER EDUCATION TO ADVANCED HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS⁶

I. Aims

- A. To acquaint the pupils with the problems of consumer education.
- B. To help the pupils to solve the problems of consumer education.
- C. To present to the pupils the good and bad points of credit, investment, and budgeting.
- D. To understand the importance of consumption and waste to the pupils and the community.

Yes No

II. Equipment

- A. Audio-visual aids.
- B. Recent books, newspapers, pamphlets, etc.
- C. Bulletin board.
- D. Filing cabinets.
- E. Source catalogues.
- F. Laboratory equipped with tables and chairs.

____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____

III. In the achievement of Aim A

A. Does the teacher:

1. Introduce consumer problems that are on the general economic level of the school population being observed?
2. Lead the discussion toward problems that are of immediate importance to the boys and girls in the class?
For example:
a. Should the senior class purchase class rings?
b. Should there be a required method of dressing for the graduation exercises?
3. Encourage the pupils to make a list of unspecialized activities that they can do at home?
For example:
a. Help paint the garage and house?
b. Make a dress?
c. Repair the electric iron, etc.?
4. Require the pupils to make a record of the evaluation of the various types of rating scales and agencies?
For example:
a. Consumer Research Inc.?
b. Consumers' Guide?

____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____

B. Do the pupils:

1. Make a list of unspecialized activities that they can do or help to do?
2. Enjoy discussing the cost of furnishing a home?
3. Discuss the responsibility of operating a "jalopy"?
4. Discuss intelligently the school's responsibility for providing adequate health services?
For example:
a. Medical examinations.
b. Dental examinations.
5. Demonstrate the importance of wearing practical clothing to school?
a. Saddle shoes instead of high heels.
b. Rubber heels instead of "hob-nails."

____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____
____ ____

⁶Prepared by Carl G. F. Franzen, Professor of Secondary Education, School of Education, Indiana University, Copyright, 1951.

	Yes	No
IV. In the achievement of Aim B		
A. Does the teacher:		
1. Publish the answers of consumer class problems in the school paper, or the school column of the town paper?	_____	_____
For example:		
a. Cost of operating a jalopy.		
b. Cost of furnishing a home.		
2. Require the pupils to make a notebook record of the answers to consumer class problems?	_____	_____
3. Frequently refer to consumer facts that should transfer from previous courses to this course?	_____	_____
For example:		
a. How to take care of a paint brush (General Shop).		
b. Methods of re-fashioning old clothes (Clothing Class).		
4. Evaluate for the class consumer information imparted to the pupils by organizations such as business men's clubs?	_____	_____
5. Attempt to teach the pupils to evaluate advertising critically?	_____	_____
B. Do the pupils:		
1. Contribute information to class discussion that they have acquired in previous courses?	_____	_____
2. Ask critical questions when representatives of business interests address the class?	_____	_____
3. Show any indication that they realize much advertising is attractive but false?	_____	_____
For example:		
a. Billboards displaying large pictures of movie stars endorsing products.		
b. "Motherly looking woman," saying, "It must be true. I read it in the _____."		
V. In the achievement of Aim C		
A. Does the teacher:		
1. Introduce a discussion of the good and bad facts about credit?	_____	_____
For example:		
a. The purchase of a "jalopy" on time.		
b. Contracting an orchestra for a school dance and hoping to pay for it from the proceeds.		
2. Keep the discussion of investment within the immediate interest of the pupils?	_____	_____
For example:		
a. Begin a scholarship fund.		
b. Buy new uniforms for the basketball team.		
c. Purchase a "juke box" for the recreation room.		
3. Keep the discussion of budgeting within the immediate interest of the pupils by considering such topics as:		
a. The financial implications of dating?	_____	_____
b. The selection of an adequate lunch at minimum cost?	_____	_____
c. The purchase of clothing?	_____	_____
B. Do the pupils:		
1. Ask critical questions about credit plans?	_____	_____
For example:		
a. Household finance.		
b. Morris plan.		
2. Relate to the class good or bad experiences they may have had with credit plans?	_____	_____
3. Evaluate the true value of a dollar in an investment?	_____	_____
4. Make sample budgets to correspond to the possible range of allowances or earnings of their own group?	_____	_____
VI. In the achievement of Aim D		
A. Does the teacher:		
1. Stress the importance of the pupils as consumers in the life of the community?	_____	_____
2. Encourage the pupils to purchase necessary things first?	_____	_____

	Yes	No
3. Constantly encourage the pupils to apply the scientific method before purchasing a commodity or service?	_____	_____
4. Encourage the pupils to salvage materials that can be used again?	_____	_____
B. Do the pupils:		
1. Buy necessary things first?	_____	_____
a. Buy lunch before they buy cokes.		
b. Buy textbooks before they buy cosmetics.		
c. Attend symphonic record sessions instead of the actual concert.		
2. Appreciate the problem of waste as shown by their readiness:		
a. To eat all the food they buy in the cafeteria?	_____	_____
b. To save partially used sheets of paper for "scratch" work?	_____	_____
c. To salvage dance decorations for further use?	_____	_____
d. Not to mark on school walls or mar desks?	_____	_____
e. Not to scatter toilet paper in the rest rooms?	_____	_____

WHAT SUPERVISORY PRACTICES PROMOTE TEACHER GROWTH AND CO-OPERATION?

LLOYD W. ASHBY

TODAY there is a marked tendency to move toward the use of democratic processes in school administration and supervision. In some situations this trend has been mistakenly confused with a *laissez-faire* attitude which has tended to bring license, unco-ordinated effort, and poor educational programs in its train. The militant type of supervision of days gone by would not now be countenanced. However, there are equally great dangers inherent in the pseudo-democratic theory that no supervision is good supervision. We are not concerned here with either of the extremes just mentioned. We are rather concerned with how the principles of good relationships may be applied honestly and with courage in the educational situation at the local school level; with the setting up of a type of environment which is conducive to the growth of all concerned—teachers, parents, pupils, and supervisors.

This topic is indeed a broad one and runs the gamut of practically the total task of the secondary school principal. While other matters are important, any secondary school principal would be happy to trust his "stars" for other things if he could consistently so manage his affairs as to promote teacher growth and co-operation in a substantial percentage of the members of his staff.

Doubtless the first practice in which the principal should engage is the task of setting up for himself the principles of effective supervision. Then he has a job of implementation. The purpose of this paper will therefore be to outline the principles which the writer believes lead in the direction of teacher growth and co-operation, and then to examine briefly some techniques for implementing such principles.

Lloyd W. Ashby is Principal of the Cheltenham Township High School, Elkins Park, Pa.

WHAT ARE THE PRINCIPLES OF GOOD SUPERVISION?

Effective supervision is first of all concerned with attempting to build good morale. This might sound somewhat superficial or inadequate without a clear understanding of what is meant by morale. In the opinion of the writer this has best been defined by Watson, who listed the five essential factors of civilian morale during World War II as:

1. A positive goal.
2. A feeling of togetherness.
3. Awareness of some danger in which group members feel themselves involved.
4. Conviction that the group can do something to improve matters.
5. A sense of accomplishment.

These factors seem to be generally applicable to a staff group of teachers at any time. Watson's point three, awareness of danger, would have to be considered as somewhat more diffused and subjective than that of civilian morale in wartime. Dangers in wartime are more concrete and more easily recognized. If point three is considered as implying the danger of a school failing adequately to meet its needs, or as the danger of apathy and indifference, or as the danger of incurring community criticism, then Watson's points are all applicable and definitely pertinent to the school situation. The attainment of this type of morale is the end toward which effective supervision is directed.

Effective supervision grows out of group thinking and group planning.

This principle is obviously closely related to that of morale building. Programs are not arbitrarily laid down from any level of the administrative or supervisory hierarchy. They come rather from the grass roots level, and are best achieved when all groups work together toward goals set by the entire organization. When all persons have an opportunity to share in policy making it is more likely that loyal and sympathetic co-operation will result.

Effective supervision finds ways and means to utilize and release the talents of teachers, students, and lay persons.

It is the business of the supervisor to create a permissive atmosphere in which either recognized or latent ability of whatever kind may be used most effectively. The attitude of the supervisor in bringing this about should be warm, effective, and firm. The measure of the effectiveness of the supervisor is at least partially determined by the extent to which he can and does make good use of all the talent at his disposal.

Effective supervision goes hand in hand with curriculum development.

Said in another way, supervision and curriculum development are the two feet on which we move step by step in the direction of established goals. This obviously implies a broad interpretation of the meaning of supervision. It has to do with the over-all goals and the over-all means of achieving them.

Effective supervision respects those with whom the supervisor works.

The supervisor must learn to accept the principle of individual differences and to convince teachers that he does respect them. The good teacher and the effective supervisor will supplement one another's activities. During the whole relationship it is essential that respect be mutually earned and mutually recognized.

SOME TECHNIQUES OF GOOD SUPERVISION

The items considered here are not unusual or spectacular. They are intended rather to stimulate thinking about certain techniques which are well within the reach of every secondary school principal.

Group processes

The possibilities of the use of the group process are inherent in most situations in which the supervisor or principal functions. Since the principles of group work are applicable to all situations only certain general observations can be made here. Experiments made by Kurt Lewin and others indicate that it is demonstrably true that individuals respond better to a permissive democratic atmosphere than to one that is either authoritarian or *laissez-faire*. Lewin provides a very effective summary of the values of group processes growing out of his experiments. A few of the items are:

1. Group decision in setting up production goals are more effective than pressure methods.
2. Discussions without decisions do not make for real participation by members in group action.
3. It is easier to change ideology or cultural habits by dealing with groups than with individuals. As long as group standards are unchanged, the individual will resist changes. However, if group standards are changed, the conflict between individual and group standards is eliminated.
4. Members of groups which discuss and decide tend to identify themselves with the decision of the group.

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development lists the characteristics of the group process as follows:

1. Group atmosphere is democratic.
2. Everyone participates voluntarily.
3. All action is co-operative.
4. There is inter-action among members.
5. The group formulates goals.
6. Every member is a 'change-agent'.
7. Group morale and discipline are 'we-centered'.
8. Leadership is a function of the group.

The techniques of the group process have been well developed in current literature, especially literature dealing with adult education in which field much of the experimentation and development has been carried on. The effective supervisor will have at least a speaking acquaintance with these techniques—role playing, role of the member,

role of the leader, position of the status leader, process observer, group recorder, etc. These help point the way to group improvement, and improvement in the use of them should be sought deliberately. It should be recognized that group work is time consuming, painstaking, and at times discouraging—except and unless long-range goals and objectives are kept clearly in mind.

Job Relations Training

Closely related to the supervisory process and to group techniques is Job Relations Training. JRT is a ten-hour package course for supervisors widely used during World War II in industry throughout the nation. It was prepared by the Training Within Industry section of the War Manpower Commission. While engaged in industrial personnel work during the war years, the writer was impressed by the fact that

Original Form

JOB RELATIONS TRAINING

A Supervisor Gets Results Through People

Foundations for Good Relations

Industry

LET EACH WORKER KNOW HOW HE IS GETTING ALONG.

Figure out what you expect of him.

Point out ways to improve.

GIVE CREDIT WHEN DUE

Look for *extra* or *unusual* performance.

Tell him while "It's hot."

TELL PEOPLE IN ADVANCE ABOUT CHANGES THAT WILL AFFECT THEM

Tell them **WHY** if possible.

Get them to accept the change.

MAKE THE BEST USE OF EACH PERSON'S ABILITY

Look for ability not now being used.

Never stand in a man's way.

People must be treated as individuals.

Education

LET EACH TEACHER KNOW HOW HE IS GETTING ALONG.

Plan with the teacher as to what you expect.

Help him see ways to improve through group action.

GIVE CREDIT WHEN DUE

Look for *extra* or *unusual* contributions.

Tell him while "It's hot."

TELL PEOPLE IN ADVANCE ABOUT CHANGES THAT WILL AFFECT THEM

By planning the **HOW** and **WHY** with them.

Make changes only as developed by the group.

MAKE THE BEST USE OF EACH PERSON'S ABILITY

Look for ability not now being used.

Always help a teacher advance.

People must be treated as individuals working in a group situation.

here was expressed in a nutshell the essence of the supervisory relationship—that it was not limited to war time or to industry. The JRT program was developed over a period of years by top leaders in the field of personnel management. The writer has paraphrased or adapted the JRT principles slightly to make them even more applicable to the educational environment. The original version is reproduced on page 29 and the revised version below.

Revised Form

JOB RELATIONS TRAINING

How to Handle a Problem

Industry

GET THE FACTS

- Review the record.
- Find out what rules and plant customs apply.
- Talk with individuals concerned.
- Get opinions and feelings.

Be sure you have the whole story.

WEIGH AND DECIDE

- Fit the facts together.
- Consider their bearing on each other.
- Check practices and policies.
- What possible actions are there?
- Consider effect on individual, group and production.

Don't jump at conclusions.

TAKE ACTION

- Are you going to handle this yourself?
- Do you need help in handling?
- Should you refer this to your supervisor?
- Watch the timing of your action.

Don't pass the buck.

CHECK RESULTS

- How soon will you follow up?
- How often will you need to check?
- Watch for changes in output, attitudes and relationships.

Did your action help production?

Education

GET THE FACTS

- Review the record.
- Find out what rules and customs apply.
- Talk with individuals concerned.
- Get opinions and feelings.

Be sure you have the whole story.

WEIGH AND DECIDE

- Fit the facts together.
- Consider their bearing on each other.
- Check practices and policies.
- What possible actions are there?
- Consider effect on individual, group and educational outcomes.

Don't jump at conclusions.

TAKE ACTION

- Are you going to handle this yourself?
- Do you need help in handling?
- Should you refer this to your supervisor?
- Watch the timing of your action.

Don't pass the buck.

CHECK RESULTS

- How soon will you follow up?
- Help the teacher analyze the situation.
- Watch for changes in effort, attitude and relationship.

Did your action improve the educational outcomes?

The Advisory Committee

This committee of some type is now used rather widely by secondary school principals. It is a significant type of group which can do much to further the work of the total group, to simplify matters for the larger group, and to serve as a liaison agency between the principal and his staff. Many matters can be worked out more satisfactorily by a small working group than by the total group, and at a great saving of time and energy. Most often such groups are composed of from five to seven members selected by the membership of the larger group in a manner set by the group itself. This tends to insure that the group will have a sound relationship with the entire staff.

The Teachers Bulletin

This bulletin is one of the common devices used for a variety of purposes. Certainly one function of the bulletin is to get detailed matters to teachers without having to resort to professional meetings filled with trivia. A second and perhaps more important function is to carry general information, general policies, and interpretative material of all types to the entire staff. This may consist of such items as committee reports, special contributions by individual teachers, reports on visiting days. It is a useful instrument for promoting both growth and co-operation and should not be overlooked.

Roster Making

The class and extracurricular roster is certainly the most inevitable of methods known to the profession for promoting, or for failing to promote, teacher growth and co-operation. The task of assigning all types of duties is one that must be done, and willy-nilly it determines to a considerable extent the conditions under which the teacher works for the semester or the year under consideration. Obviously the philosophy of the group will give direction to the business of roster making. But it is also true that the business of roster making is often the point at which the best founded intentions may flounder on the rocks. Rostering skills make possible core programs or correlated programs, as well as the highly departmentalized type of program. Department heads and teachers should be consulted and their suggestions incorporated into the final roster so far as is consistent with the needs of the youth for whom the program is devised. One of the most potent of all methods of building good will and good relationships is to be found in this business of deciding such mundane things as the number of pupils per class, the number of preparations expected per day, the extent and character of extracurricular assignments, the room to be used, and other related and seemingly humdrum but highly significant decisions.

The Classroom Visit

Is the classroom visit any longer a supervisory technique in the sense that it promotes teacher growth and co-operation? It seems to

be generally held now that the visit is no longer for the purpose of looking, for example, for weaknesses which can later be corrected in a formal conference situation. This type of conference more or less destroys the whole concept of good supervision as held by those who subscribe to the principles enumerated earlier. With new teachers there is perhaps something to be gained from these techniques. But, by and large, the current attitude toward the classroom visit is that of obtaining general impressions, of relating the visit to curriculum work which is in process, or in response to an invitation from a teacher or class group. The worthwhileness of the classroom visit in any situation is directly proportional to the naturalness of the situation. If because of the supervisor's presence, the situation is abnormal or strained in any way, then the visit can't mean too much, even in terms of the traditional concept. If the right relationships exist between supervisor and teacher, between teacher and pupil, then the classroom visit becomes a perfectly natural situation, where all work together in the direction of common goals.

Group II (Wednesday)—TOPIC: How Can the Faculty Meeting Be Made Professional?

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HOW CAN THE FACULTY MEETING BE MADE PROFESSIONAL?

ROBERT G. ANDREE

THIS was once a "new" subject, I suspect, in approximately the same age as that in which the pyramids were built. For some ancient priest is reported to have inscribed in hieroglyphs: "Children no longer obey their parents and everyone is writing a book." Such age-old behavior must certainly have presented meat for long and detailed "faculty" discussions.

For a much later but no less effective period, detailed and confidential minutes of teachers' meetings were recently made available

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to me. Three such items are particularly interesting. Minutes from a staff meeting on Tuesday evening, October 4, 1836, read in part: "At 7 o'clock, P.M. the staff and citizens assembled to hear the lecture, 'On the present inefficient and superficial modes of instruction,' by John D. Craig of Cincinnati." At another meeting of a second group in October of the same year, one staff passed the following resolution: "Resolved, 'That it be the duty of every member of the Western Literary Institute, to promote the calling of Educational Conventions in their several districts, for the formation of Associations of Teachers, and other friends of Education'." That staff members in those days were equally concerned with the community atmosphere in which they conducted their efforts is revealed by the following notation: "N. Holley read a report 'On the best method of reaching and animating the Community on the subject of Education,' which, with Mr. Leonard's report, previously submitted, was adopted."

WHY HAVE FACULTY MEETINGS?

There is no space in this article for a diatribe against present practices. But were we to search our souls, each reader could find at least one such meeting of which he is thoroughly ashamed! I recall those where teachers were called into session once each quarter for the sole purpose of reading to the superintendent the marks from their class records, who then dutifully recorded the same on the pupils' report cards! This was his way of "better knowing each student in my school." We have all experienced meetings with men and women staff members dutifully divided as to seating arrangement, complete with an almost total lack of communication on the problems at hand. We have participated in sessions wholly unplanned, where some of the boldest (and equally bored) teachers corrected themes or short tests, knitted, or just gazed out the window while some "worthy and perennial participant in the Democratic process" held forth on what was wrong with the school.

J. N. Emery¹ lists six types of staff meetings which seriously raise the question of having any meetings at all in the atmospheres they represent. (1) A boresome discussion of vague aims, (2) an opportunity for finding fault, (3) a wearisome discussion of local regulations, (4) a discussion of behavior problems, (5) one for vituperous and acrimonious argument, and (6) the "hesitant" meeting where no one wants to talk.

For my very life, I can think of no better reason for having a faculty meeting than to promote and encourage a social dynamics situation where staff members share experiences on the common problems and advantages of the school. Indeed, faculty meetings with this basic purpose, conducted within a well-planned scheduled framework of faculty experiences, is the capstone of a vibrant school situation!

¹Emery, J. N., "With Careful and Valid Planning Teachers' Meetings Can be Enjoyed"—*Nation's Schools*, 40: 30-1, N. '47

Why have faculty meetings? Because, as Linton puts it so well, "It is becoming increasingly evident that the disposition and behavior of an individual are shaped by a cultural system...and groups to which he belongs."² How is one going to take any group (teachers or otherwise) and cause them to grow into a dynamic force for good in a school situation without common purposeful experiences on the highest possible cultural level? Teachers, in order to really *belong* to a group must take on the values of that group. But *how*, if we continue to have staff meetings in our schools such as Emery describes?

Further, changes in teachers must take account of the social roots of their personalities and must account for weaving the professional fabric of their "ideas, ideals, beliefs, skills, tools, aesthetic values, objects, methods of thinking, customs, and institutional concepts" for the benefit of the whole. These take place *only* if the individual belongs to the group for which he has a feeling of belongingness. Without that, any amount of "facts" and the reasoning of other members of the group is likely to have little or no effect on him!

SUPERVISION AND FACULTY MEETINGS

Ordinarily this topic would have no bearing on our present discussion. It has been my experience, however, that what one believes "supervision" to be deeply affects the character and content of the faculty meeting. If the administrator adheres to a concept of supervision that involves inspection, rating, direction and/or enforcement, his meetings will reflect greatly that philosophy. If his concepts of supervision include the use of any technique or pattern to increase the social dynamic forces within his faculty, to acquaint them with, or actually give them a deep sense of belonging, then his staff meetings will undoubtedly reflect *that* philosophy.

SOME PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS FOR EFFECTIVE FACULTY MEETINGS

These suggestions are so simple and so obvious as to approach the level of the axiom. One writer suggests that conferences should be concerned with problems the teachers themselves raise.³ This procedure is all right if the topics are carefully edited long before the meeting and a properly constructed agenda is placed in the hands of the staff at a time appropriate to adequate preparation for the meeting. A spontaneous meeting based on the problems which teachers themselves have raised encourages the kind of staff meetings we all would rather do without. Problems must involve issues, and not the run-of-the-mill items that tend to clog even the best of our meetings. "Who knows where the 1,600 foot reel to the projector is?" "What damaged the left leg of my grand piano?" "How many minutes shall the marshals

²Linton, Ralph, *The Study of Man*—N. Y.—D. Appleton-Century Inc., 1936

³Rodemann, E. K., "Faculty Conferences Can Be Interesting"—*High Points*, 31:63-65, June, '49

be excused before the bell rings?" These and a host of petty annoyances and grievances can soon upset a rather well-organized meeting.

Carlton,⁴ describing a series of most satisfying faculty meetings, listed a series of topics which led to the solution of some pertinent issues within the school: (1) The Homes They Come From, (2) Current Important Reading, (3) Our Rural Students, (4) Teachers I Have Liked, (5) Teaching Tolerance, (6) Pity the Poor Principal, (7) Student Courtships, (8) I'd Do It This Way, and (9) Play the Game. Each schoolman could add others that would meet the needs in his school.

A third technique for making staff meetings involves the use of "Old 66," sometimes known as "Discussion 66" or just the old fashioned buzz session come of age. The technique is simple: (1) Use a short period of time to acquaint the whole group with the problems to be discussed, either through the review of an agenda sheet which has been distributed to the membership previously, through the use of a resource person or panel which presents an issue or issues, or through the use of audio-visual materials which can later be implemented with discussions. (2) Let the group break up into smaller groups according to individual interests. (3) Have each group choose a chairman and secretary, one for presenting to the entire group (to be reassembled later) an oral report on the deliberations of his committee, and the secretary to prepare a written report for reproduction and later distribution to the entire group.

The values of such procedures are rather obvious: (1) Teachers exchange ideas on topics which usually cut across mere subject lines. (2) Teachers begin to know each other outside of their immediate department, especially in the larger school. (3) It guarantees an almost 100 per cent participation and a psychological warm-up before the general discussion which follows the oral reports of the committee chairmen. (4) It represents one good way to awaken a staff to the many common problems which they have and ought to share.

The voluntary faculty meeting is a fourth excellent technique for judging the effectiveness of those you are now conducting. This does not refer to those that are held during the school day as part of a well-defined program of in-service training, to which teachers are assigned because of the time of day in which they are held. It refers specifically to that type of meeting which is held after-school hours (much as most such meetings are held in American schools) and which so many staff members are loath to attend. In one typical large city system, Saturday voluntary clinics have been held, where teachers and administrators may submit their problems for a general discussion by those present. This type of voluntary activity found few principals among the participants at first, but now that this clinic has proved effective more administrators are attending.

⁴Carlton, R. E., "I Took an Oath about Teachers' Meetings"—*Clearing House*, 23: 289-291, Jan. '49

A voluntary faculty meeting is one that has been set up by the administrator or by a staff committee, duly advertised and announced, as to its purposes and objectives. For example, one staff committee, interested in a developmental reading program, planned a meeting as a "kick-off" for a series of discussions and research projects on "What Do Our Pupils Read?" The group was able to get Dr. Howard Mumford Jones for the occasion. The talk, discussion, and the accompanying tea served as an excellent means to open this topic. On another occasion the staff was invited to weigh the merits of the Wetzel Grid as a means of determining whether or not students were growing and developing properly physically. The one program which was tremendously effective, however, involved the use of the film, "Let There be Light." This is a documentary film, produced at one of the government hospitals on Long Island, completely unrehearsed and showing the therapy used in the rehabilitation of soldiers who are suffering from old and/or new acquired maladjustments. More than a million feet of film were shot and of this the best one and a half hour program was cut. *Life* ran a few stills from its footage about two years ago, and one state legislature was convinced of the need of a totally new program for mental health after seeing it and discussing its implications. Seeing activities like hypnosis used in the hands of a competent therapist, and other similar activities, leaves a tremendous impression on the staff, and helps them to consider in a new light the pupils under their care.

Finally, the highest type of faculty meeting is one that uses any of a number of techniques to bring teachers into an atmosphere and sense of belonging. To feel that one has a purpose and a calling in a school is of the highest significance. I know of no better way than to seek its accomplishment through the right kind of staff meeting. If, as administrators, we are concerned with the social dynamics of our staff, with welding them into an effective and unified group, complete with common purposes and a will to serve for the best interests of our youth, we will use staff meetings as a keystone to that end.

Teaching adults to participate in a democratic, purposeful discussion is one of the hardest things for an administrator to do and one of the hardest things for a teacher to learn. Impatience on the part of either can completely kill the project. Unless, however, we actually bear fruit in this type of social dynamics for teachers we can never hope to have them teach these processes in the classroom. The highest form of supervision is achieved when teachers experience a sense of belonging in the best sense of that term, when they are able to participate freely in the discussion of motives, problems, objectives, purposes, and the future of education in their school, and when they are free to translate their experiences into co-operative pupil-teacher planning and learning in the classroom.

Give us better staff meetings and we will have better teachers; give us better teachers and we will have better schools.

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HOW CAN THE FACULTY MEETING BE MADE PROFESSIONAL?

W. R. CLEMINSON

A NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT

MISS "X" is reminded by the Friday bulletin that the regular faculty meeting will be held next Wednesday at 3:30. What kind of bell does that ring, Miss "X" being the average teacher, four years of experience, or eleven, or twenty-seven years? Does she anticipate a 60 to 75 minute experience of interest to her? Does she expect to have assistance in solving her problems? Does she anticipate considerable staff participation and a presentation of good ideas, new ways of carrying out the many functions of a superior teacher? Will she hear interesting, inspiring committee reports and recommendations which will include aid to her? Will she be given good opportunity to express her views for and against proposals that are made by the principal or others? Will the meeting begin late in the afternoon with teachers all fagged out doing their best to get some bounce to the ounce? When she notices that it is 4:45, will there be a feeling of "Is it that late already?" Will there be some good laughs during the meeting? Will she leave with her chin up higher, a good smile, and a refreshed feeling? Will she have new ideas which she is anxious to try out with eagerness and pleasant anticipation? Let's not investigate Miss "X's" thoughts further at this time.

The usual faculty meeting is not given a high rating by the average Miss "X". Cook and Full have written: "Whatever the cause, the

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data revealed by this study lead to the conclusion that faculty meetings (in this state)...do not provide the stimuli which are basic to genuine professional growth."¹ Teachers have many complaints to make of the average faculty meetings. Too often they consist mainly in announcements of administrative details and the interpretation of policies already stated and re-stated. Too often "special attention is called" to the entire staff when it could be mentioned in private to the three or four negligent individuals. It would be better for the principal to "take the bull by the horns" and speak to these individuals personally instead of causing the entire staff to hear about what a few are neglecting to carry out. The guilty ones in all probability are not listening anyhow.

The time given to grumbling and gripes, trials and tribulations of a few is not productive. Further, it can become, and often is, very annoying and boring to the majority of the staff. To be most helpful in contributing ideas and originating plans, one must have a pleasant feeling. Teachers' problems should be discussed at faculty meetings. However, the presentation of them should, in main, be done in advance.

Most of our teachers are fine, professional, conscientious people. They recognize the value of listening to professional lectures. However, when the principal regularly carries the ball, giving professional lectures, at "his" faculty meetings, teachers lose much interest.

FACULTY MEETINGS—PROFESSIONAL

A meeting which includes several staff members for the purpose of studying, discussing, and planning anything related to the work of the teacher as it affects the growth and development of pupils is a faculty meeting. Departmental meetings are faculty meetings. A committee of six or ten or more staff members who have expressed interest on a special topic such as report card revision, examination policy, etc., is one form of faculty meeting. Certainly, the faculty meeting is not limited to that type of meeting which is made up of the entire staff of the building with the principal "in charge."

And how do we define "professional"? Participants in an undertaking are professional when they *demonstrate* by their particular service that they have the "know how" in conforming to high standards of skill and art as a result of study, experience, and growth. They are referred to as professional as contrasted with the amateur who gabbles and stumbles, and often blurts out with something not fully planned, hoping for the best.

OBJECTIVES OF FACULTY MEETINGS

The main objective of the faculty meeting is to improve the program and service of the school for boys, girls, and community. With this, of

¹Cook, K. A. and Full, Harold, "Is the School Faculty Meeting Significant in Promoting Professional Growth?" *The School Review*, Nov. 1948, p. 424.

course, we immediately recognize a great number of special areas and relationships such as equipment, instructional materials, teacher morale, pupil-teacher relationships, community-school relationships, testing program, special provisions according to pupil ability, *etc.* Again, these are but a few and each is the product of innumerable smaller but exceedingly important minor areas. For each there are many ways of achievement. The best method in school "A" is very probably somewhat different from the best method in school "B". What is the best method?

One thing is quite certain. The best procedures will be reached after the best analysis, discussion, and consideration have been given. The opinions of staff members will always give recommendations of extreme worth in the development of policies, selection of materials, and in general, improvement. A meeting devoted to topics not considered important by the staff will usually be rather a valueless meeting. It follows that participation of staff is necessary in providing topics for consideration which will be of most interest and worth when staff members are called together.

Again, teachers usually are professional. They are interested in pupil growth. In the main, they are not selfish of their own time and energy. Many problems, and very important problems, they understand better than principals do. To have effective faculty meetings we must deal with problems and concerns of teachers. Opportunity, therefore, must be provided for topics to be suggested by teachers, preferably before the meeting. Topics could be presented by teachers to their own planning committee who, with the principal, plan the meeting.

The agenda for the meeting should include more than a list of questions and ideas. It usually makes for a better meeting if those who are to be present have had an opportunity to know the agenda in advance and have given some consideration to the topics to be discussed so that they will not arrive at the meeting cold with respect to the business of the meeting. Time is lost when the meeting develops into a presentation of individual problems and concerns. It is much better to ask for these in advance, whether they be on "red tape," or other features of school policy which teachers find to be problems or bothersome work for which the achievement is of too little value. These problems can be summarized in advance at the meeting. The person who is presenting the material can explain at the outset that they are taken in descending order according to the frequency of mention by teachers. More time can be given to discussing the problems, explaining why certain requirements are made, giving the history and reasons back of certain policies, re-evaluating them and proposing modifications which will improve them. In all of this, of course, each staff member is welcome to participate.

One of the most beneficial aspects of democratic participation is the increase in the acceptance of the decisions which result from

meetings of this type. Miss "A" might have strong convictions for a certain plan of procedure. She will express them. Others will be given. If few or no members of the staff seem to be impressed by Miss "A"'s plan, she will know it and in all probability will, although with some regret, realize that her thinking was not the best. She will change that thinking according to ideas which are presented by others. Finally, hers will be a different plan much more similar to the plan that is finally selected. She will feel satisfied for having had an opportunity to present her ideas and to have a part in the development of another plan. How important is it for Miss "A" to have this feeling? It is extremely important because one always has more genuine interest in carrying out ideas in which he had a part in formulating.

FACULTY MEETINGS AND HUMAN RELATIONS

In a recent survey of forty-seven public high schools designated by State and university leaders in education as having good staff relationships, 75% of the reporting high schools confirm that teacher participation in formulating educational policy contributes greatly to staff relationship. Staff members "share in the discussion of problems, share in educational planning, share in the responsibility for making decisions affecting policy and share in the achievement of the school... Regardless of the particular method (of sharing), each teacher is considered a team member who is invited to share in making decisions affecting school policies. The freedom to suggest, criticize, and contribute to the way the school is run tends to establish a bond of co-operation between the staff and the principal. Sometimes staff meetings seethe with controversy but all the view points are listened to because the staff knows that it has the responsibility for influencing decisions and that it is not being manipulated or dominated. The principal in such a school usually keeps the door to his office open. He rarely has need to exert his authority. He prefers face-to-face communications whenever possible.... When a question of policy arises, he talks it over with the staff so that the decision is usually the consensus of the group."²

Democracy and its ideals are primarily dedicated to improving human relations. The feeling of being appreciated is one of the most pleasant impressions one can have. In our dealings with co-workers we should give more attention to identifying and recognizing superior work done by the teacher. At a faculty meeting it is a tremendous boost to the teacher's morale to hear read by the principal a letter he has received giving special commendation of the superior performance by a teacher. Hearing one's name in such manner is an exceedingly happy experience. Also, there is great value to the staff in seeing that superior work is recognized and praised regularly. Naturally, there is

²Ellsworth Tompkins, *Keystones of Good Staff Relationship*, Misc. No. 13, Federal Security Commission, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

also great value in hearing of the kind of action for which the school and staff members are commended.

Writes Wilbur A. Yauch, "Every individual is important in his own right. According to our belief...the will of the people is the state. ... This makes the opinions and judgment of every person of importance in determining what shall be done. All points of view should and must be expressed. ... The common problems of living together can only be solved by co-operative action. The alternative to co-operative action is force and domination. ... All men are free to make the choices they prefer. Basic to all thinking about a good society is the denial of any man to dominate the life of another. ... Although in practice it is often necessary to violate this principle, it still stands as a foundation stone in our concept of society. Our inability to recognize and practice the principle perfectly is a measure of the distance we still must travel in implementing our best thinking."

Friendliness and warmth are necessary for the most pleasant and productive faculty meetings. Stiffness and formality work in the opposite direction. Therefore, usually it is more appropriate to follow the spirit of rules of order rather than to follow strictly the technicalities of addressing the chair, making motions, etc.

Whenever laughs can be produced without embarrassing others, it should be done. Laughing is an excellent stimulant. It is a good awakener that might be needed. One inclined to doze at a faculty meeting will be less inclined when he finds that he has missed a good laugh. A good laugh is a healthy sign.

History has proved that high morale pays dividends in increasing production. At the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago, over twenty years ago this was proved. Watson, after studying this experiment, gives us the following implications for education:

Morale improved when the group participated in planning their conditions of work.

Morale rose when the atmosphere was friendly rather than autocratic.

Variety in work helps morale.

Morale was better when the group developed a team consciousness.

Group incentive did more for morale than did individual rewards.

Morale was built more easily in groups which enjoyed being together socially than in groups too disparate in age.³

THE PRINCIPAL AND LEADERSHIP

Yauch gives a clear definition of the principal's place in faculty leadership:

The primary responsibility of the principal is that of facilitation of the interactions of the faculty group so that they may result in a maximum benefit

³Wilbur A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration*, Harper & Bros., 1949, pp. 5, 7.

⁴Goodwin Watson, "The Surprising Discovery of Morale," *Progressive Education*, XIZ, Jan. '42, pp. 33-41.

to the teachers. The principal must accept the primary function of guiding individuals in a group the ultimate purpose of which is to provide teachers with rich experiences which will qualify them as competent democratic leaders in their own classrooms....

The principal must know the general characteristics of the groups and how they function. The principal has a major task as leader of the faculty group as it attempts to arrive at common agreement concerning its work.... The principal must understand his relations to these plans and what he can do to be of maximum assistance.... Finally, the principal must act as mediator and referee for the many human relation problems that inevitably arise during the course of group action.... The leader must have intelligence, a liberal attitude, enthusiasm, friendliness, personal integrity, and above all he must have faith in the ability of people to solve their collective problems.⁵

It is not necessary that the leader of a group be conspicuous. The main function of a discussion leader is to guide the discussions inconspicuously and pleasingly in such a manner as to bring about participation by all members, or at least as many as possible, so that all views and therefore, in all probability, the best views will be presented.

A leader contributes most to a meeting when he makes the least use of authority and power. Leadership is a function, a form of action, rather than authority vested in one. Proper leadership makes for a congenial, pleasant atmosphere, one that welcomes the thinking and expression of each member of the group. Two heads are better than one and ten heads are better than two. The capable leader must handle effectively the debate when it becomes repetitious and personal, therefore unproductive. At times, naturally, the leader must express himself forcefully and insist on getting back to the main point. His effectiveness, however, is greater when that firmness is not recognized as such.

A very important function of the discussion leader is to tie together or sum up the discussion at the end of the meeting. The effectiveness and skill with which this is done has much to do with the final feeling of satisfaction with which group members leave the meeting. Although not previously stated, there is no intention here to indicate that in meetings where the principal is present it should be assumed that the principal should be the discussion leader or should preside throughout the meeting. In the all-staff meetings teachers will profit by some rotation in discussion leaders. Such change is refreshing to the staff. It should be welcomed by the principal as well. Sitting with and participating with the teachers gives him as good, if not a better opportunity to express his views.

PLANNING FACULTY MEETINGS

No doubt the faculty meetings would be received better and, therefore, more productive, if they were not held late in the afternoon. Most faculty meetings are held after school dismissal. Twenty or

⁵Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration*, pp. 15, 17, 56-60.

thirty minutes between the school dismissal at 3:30 and the beginning of the faculty meeting is hardly enough time for teachers to freshen up and get their second breath.

Before-school meetings, those at noon, evening, Saturday, or Sunday—all have their disadvantages. Undoubtedly the after-school time is best. However, there is a good possibility of improvement.

School could be dismissed one hour earlier on faculty-meeting afternoons, and time could be made up for it by adding fifteen minutes to each of the other four days. Teachers will be stronger physically and mentally and will have a much better attitude going to a meeting at 2:45 than at 3:45. The school system's recognition of the importance of faculty meetings would have a valuable significance for teachers. Having a meeting tacked on as an extra to a regular school day is hardly pleasing.

In all probability this would be quite acceptable to the community. There would be extra time for piano lessons, dental appointments, *etc.*, which would make for fewer half-day absences and early dismissals among pupils. Also, it would provide more time for parent-supervised activities such as the Girl Scout program.

The place of meeting is extremely important. The regular classroom or study hall does not provide the atmosphere and pleasantness which is desirable for these meetings. Depending upon the size of the group, the aim should be to use the most attractive room in the building. The seating arrangement, as much as possible, should be informal, not the audience-speaker type of arrangement. If it can be arranged, the group should be seated in a semi-circle. It is quite dull to look at the backs of five, ten, or twenty heads in front of you. It is much more inspiring and pleasant to see faces and enjoy expressions.

A short social and refreshment period before the meeting is always pleasant. Some difficulties are the extra planning, the fee for it, and also the fact that it tends to make the meeting time later. The decision of the group should be the deciding factor with respect to refreshments. Many people who enjoy smoking contribute more when they may smoke. To others smoke is annoying. Again, the group should decide.

The length of the meeting should be an hour or a little longer, unless it is clear that the business of the meeting has been completed earlier. More than one hour and a half ordinarily is too long for a meeting at the close of the day.

How often should the meeting be held? This decision should be made by the planning committee and the principal. It should not be necessary to hold an all-staff meeting weekly. Undoubtedly more progress will be made when such meetings are held monthly and the remaining meeting times given to departmental, guidance, curriculum, and other special interest groups.

CONCLUSION

Nearly all people have high regard for their own opinions. The faculty meeting can be one of the most productive means of building morale and developing better policies, objectives, and attitudes that will improve the entire school program. Nothing promotes more desire to be a key member to contribute to the work of the group than knowing one has had an opportunity to decide on the manner in which the team will operate. Then, the team's signals are in part his signals for plays which he has helped to devise, and he is therefore anxious to have his chance to carry the ball.

We must respect the minority. Often the best ideas come from unexpected sources. Also, we need the support of the minority.

Too often, leadership is considered a place of authority, given to one of rank. Leadership instead should be interpreted as a contribution to bringing people together and helping them to find ways of doing things more effectively.

The faculty meeting should not be called for the purpose of the principal's telling teachers what he wants done. "These meetings are characterized by an issuing of orders... previously given in writing or in discussion of ways teachers can improve.... Nearly all of this material and content... can easily be disposed of in bulletins lending to teachers the simple credit of being able to read and understand them. It is not necessary to insult their intelligence by insisting on verbal elaboration in a time-consuming and unnecessary meeting."⁶

Koopman, Miel and Misner give us the following:

Democracy is based on the long view of human development. It is not at all unusual for a period of three years to elapse before an individual participant shows marked growth in socialization. Although the democratic method appears to be slow, in the long run its real efficiency is demonstrated. ... Too, these tasks can be accomplished in less time and with less strain and energy than is now being dissipated by individuals lacking techniques while arriving at wise decisions in a minimum amount of time.... The building of desirable attitudes and power is more important than getting things done quickly. Nowhere is the old adage "Haste makes waste" more applicable than in the field of human relations. Democracy does function if given the proper setting and sufficient time for human beings to work out their problems.⁷

⁶Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration*, p. 66.

⁷Koopman, Miel, and Misner. *Democracy in School Administration*. D. Appleton-Century Co., 1943, pp. 76, 111.

MUSIC FOR ALL

Every boy at Chestnut Hill, Academy, Philadelphia, Pa., is enrolled in a music course, the function of which, in large part, is to train the pupil to be an intelligent listener.

Group III (Wednesday)—TOPIC: What Educational Program is Needed in the Junior High School?

CHAIRMAN: *Nata Lee Woodruff*, Principal, Alex G. Barret Junior High School, Louisville, Kentucky

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Byron D. Stuart, Principal, Roosevelt Junior High School, Westfield, New Jersey

Luther G. Roberson, Principal, Roosevelt Junior High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma

**WHAT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS NEEDED
IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?**

A. H. LAUCHNER

WHAT educational program is needed in the junior high school? Having been invited to discuss that question at this Thirty-Sixth Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, I should like to begin by pointing out the fact that the answer depends upon who's telling whom. There are some differences of opinion!

The business man who hires clerks to sell his wares, make proper change, and try to keep customers happy has some ideas on the subject. The professional man who engages typists and stenographers may think a bit differently. The coal dealer who employs truck drivers may not agree with either.

Within the walls of any large senior high school are to be found many and sometimes conflicting ideas as to what constitutes a good educational program in the junior high school. Senior high school teachers (and I'm not advocating firing them because of it) frequently look upon the "intermediate unit" as that station along the educational route which should put the finishing touches upon mastery of all fundamentals basic to satisfactory operation in senior high school areas. Some want this whether or not anything else gets done.

A sampling of thinking at college and university level reveals a similar situation. The gentleman with a Doctor's Degree in the field of geography, his colleague in industrial arts, or physical education, or music, or sociology—these men have devoted a life-time to study and research in an area of operation. Some folks say they may tend to become so over-concerned about their own subject areas as to demand that all students be given doses of what they dish out, regardless of whether or not the "medicine" takes effect.

A. H. Lauchner is Principal of the Great Neck Junior High School, Great Neck, New York.

Last year, in an address at the Convention in New York City, I suggested that men and women who have given years of study to the interests, needs, problems, and habits of early adolescents should know more about what ought to be included in any plans to improve the junior high school curriculum than any other group of adults. I now re-emphasize that statement; if junior high school administrators and teachers are not fair authorities in this field, then who is? And yet, when in 1950 I spent half a year visiting junior high schools throughout the country and personally talking with "folks in the ranks" regarding the educational program in the junior high school, what did I find? Differences of opinion!

A junior high school principal serving in a city where great numbers of his students never finish senior high school—and only eight per cent of those who do graduate enter college—features Latin in the ninth grade program. (About 80% of the students are "taking" the subject.)

Not too many miles away—in a city where a large majority of the students go on through both high school and college—a principal reports, "little demand for Latin."

WHAT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS NEEDED IN JUNIOR HIGH?

A junior high school in a city of fifty thousand population has "heavy enrollment" in ninth grade "business classes." Many junior high schools in cities with like industrial pattern offer no courses in the field.

In a junior high school of an up-and-coming city of the Southwest are choirs, glee clubs, bands, and orchestras meeting five full periods per week "on school time" and getting in a lot of "practice" in addition. Their groups perform in exceptional fashion.

A junior high principal in another city states, "We wish we could give more attention to our music activities. There doesn't seem to be time for them in the regular day. Our band and glee clubs meet before and after school."

WHAT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS NEEDED IN JUNIOR HIGH?

Boys and girls in a junior high school located in a North Central State go to co-educational shop classes. A principal in the same state says, "None of that new-fangled stuff for me," but the head man in a neighboring state goes part way. His school has one shop for boys and another for girls.

Quite a few junior high schools now offer short home-economics courses for boys, and here and there may be found a school in which they are required.

WHAT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS NEEDED IN JUNIOR HIGH?

An Iowa Junior High School principal believes all students should be encouraged to meet in groups for thinking together, solving school

and community problems, and growing in the skills that are developed in his Auditorium Classes. Many junior high schools reserve these experiences for the Student Council and one or two similar groups.

Here is a junior high school with four ninth grade algebra classes and five practical mathematics groups. In the city twenty miles to the west there are no practical mathematics classes in junior high, even though the average level of ability is lower in the second school than in the first mentioned.

This junior high school groups students heterogeneously, with all seventh graders enrolled in "regular" English classes; that junior high conducts a comprehensive testing program, sets up groups in homogeneous arrangement, and plans English offerings to meet varying abilities.

Most junior high schools have no formal instruction in handwriting, but a few set up regular classes in the subject. In general, this statement applies also to the area we call *spelling*, and to *reading*. An increasing number of schools are establishing remedial classes for students with low ability in these areas, but one may find many school folks who question the value of such classes; their argument is that "gains are only temporary." Furthermore, they contend that boys and girls with extremely low ability in these academic areas may well spend their time in more useful (to them) training.

A Wisconsin Junior High School carries on a comprehensive activity program in order that students may receive training for "wise use of leisure." (The school names other goals.) In Pennsylvania, a Junior High organizes a Student Council and Court to aid in developing boys and girls in the art of "living together" well. A Michigan Junior High conducts camping activities; a California Junior High features a rose garden looked after by students.

WHAT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS NEEDED IN THE JUNIOR HIGH?

Who knows? Personally, after having toured the country to study the question, I must admit that I'm not ready to offer any set program for junior high schools. However, I am willing to discuss three questions which to me are basic.

First, what are desirable qualities in adult life?

Second, is there evidence to indicate that millions of young citizens have not attained goals because of great numbers of home failures?

Third, if there be such evidence, shall schools assume new responsibilities in training youth?

Answer these questions, and some progress will have been made in arriving at an answer to the basic question of this discussion. I shall try.

Desirable qualities include: (1) Emotional stability, (2) Love of home and family, (3) Decent attitudes toward people of all races, colors and creeds, (4) Ability and desire to be self-supporting (thrift), (5) Eagerness to share blessings.

There are many other qualities which may be termed *desirable*, but space forbids mention. It should be pointed out that adults need to be trained in use of all basic skills we know as the three R's in varying degree as abilities differ and human weaknesses and strengths exist. No one questions the inclusion of this latter phase of education in the school program; it's the character training and the so-called fads and frills that are sometimes up for argument.

To those many men and women who take the position that the school should not be required to do what the home ought to do, I should like to present some thoughts for consideration.

First, many homes are not prepared or inclined to offer proper, wholesome training to children. What about the mother who cannot do a lick of sewing? Will she train a daughter? And what of those mothers who not only cannot cook but do not care to? What of dads who know absolutely nothing about fixing things in the house? What of the thousands of mothers who work so hard all day (in the business world) that they have no enthusiasm whatever for training a child during the little time they have for rest? What of the dads who come home from work, grab a bite to eat, and set out for the club or a gay sport?

And what of the millions of broken homes? How well may one expect them to train young men and women in the art of living together in a spirit of sacrifice, give, and take?

It's not a pretty picture. Add to those homes which simply are not able to cope with the problem of training youth well, the ones which bluntly refuse to accept the responsibility, and the seriousness of the situation becomes at once apparent! There are millions of youngsters in this country who are greatly handicapped as far as plain, sensible home training is concerned.

I contend that each student is entitled to guidance and training and if a very great number of parents cannot or will not provide it—then the school should. (Fire when ready!)

This is 1952, not the "good, old days"! In early pioneer days, children helped parents with work at hand. Mothers spent the day and evening at home. Daughters learned chores from mother; sons, from dad. There were no cars to take entire families out night after night. No radios, no television to take up hour after hour. Wants were simple.

In those days the schools gave little thought to anything save the Three R's; parents were giving time and attention to bringing up children. Nowadays, so many, many homes seem occupied with the job of making money and spending it, and with getting out in the car or airplane, that just about everything has been wished off on the school.

The school resents it, as it should. Teachers feel that they are being imposed upon; they do not think it quite fair. With that I agree.

However, because I just don't seem to get a picture of parents slowing up the mad rush to get more and more money (for additional material possessions), and because I just don't see some mothers

settling down to the unglamorous (to them) job of looking after the home and the family, I am willing to have the school help bring about more wholesome conditions in the training of unfortunate children.

This is 1952! I would not have ordered all things as they are, but I can and will attempt to adjust to present day living, at the same time doing my utmost to help make of it the best possible living.

We shall never get back to the "good old days." Never has that happened.

WHAT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS NEEDED IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

The answer is this: Let us have a program which aims to help students live thoughtful, useful, happy lives now, in 1952, and, we hope, twenty years from now, in 1972.

Because ability to read, write, spell, and figure are deemed essential to full economic and social welfare, let the junior high school continue to stress these areas, looking upon the job as of major importance. Let them be stressed according to a pattern which studies, allows for, and accepts the plain truth of individual differences, always seeking to carry each student along in proportion to his ability.

Let us teach love of home and family life, and preparation for it. This means creating and enjoying music and art, carrying on intelligent discussions, reading, working together in harmonious groups, playing games, developing hobbies, learning to share, practicing thrift, understanding people of different social and economic levels and of races, colors and creeds.

Finally let it be said that all too often it is not lack of program which causes a junior high school to be mediocre or poor in stature. One may visit scores of schools which appear (on paper) to be good ones.

The educational program should be thought through, set up, and carried to success by co-operative effort of all concerned. No principal should expect to head a fine program save as it has the blessing of faculty, parents, and students. There must be understanding! This can come about only when the program is geared to serve a particular community.

It is not a fact or skill which counts most; rather is it the manner in which the learning is brought about and the use to which the facts and skills will be put.

It is not the nature of an activity; the real importance lies in what goes on in the hearts and minds of students.

A great faculty could turn out good products even though handicapped by a none-too-good program.

An unhappy, disinterested faculty might fail with a strong (on paper) program.

It's the spirit that counts.

Each junior high school should seek to develop a program best suited to its own situation at the same time building the spirit to execute it.

WHAT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS NEEDED IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

RAYMOND S. NEWMAN

AN INTRIGUING QUESTION

WHAT educational program is needed in the junior high school?" "What seems important for junior high school boys and girls to learn?" This is an intriguing question. As a matter of fact, I believe that it is one of the most important, challenging, and complex problems facing all junior high personnel (and others too).

It is important because out of the educational program come (or rather the learners bring to and take from it) the ideas, understandings, knowledges, skills, attitudes, and behavior which make up the warp and woof of junior high school life.

It is challenging because there is no final answer, I think, as to what the educational program must or should be. It must, like democracy, be worked at constantly.

WHERE ARE THE ANSWERS?

Because of the complexity of the question, the answers (I am sure there is more than one) must come from many sources in the educational hierarchy. We must go to teachers, to psychologists and child growth and development experts, to cultural anthropologists and sociologists, to subject specialists, to educational philosophers, to curriculum experts, and to school administrators.

NOT A ONE MAN JOB

No role is more important than that of the teacher. Unless she understands the program, cares about it, has the "know-why" and the "know-how," and has a bit of the missionary spirit in her service motive to children—the program will remain a list of inanimate "good things to do." Participation in developing the program is the keynote in helping her breathe the breath of life into it.

The psychologists and the child growth and development experts play an indispensable part, too. They provide hints and helps as to what makes people tick and the conditions under which learning takes place best.

Raymond S. Newman is Principal of the John Paul Jones Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Cultural anthropologists and sociologists, through their study of past and present cultures, help ferret out the basic social processes which society has found necessary for its preservation and improvement.

Subject specialists, because of their interest in certain aspects of racial experience, are a part of the team. Racial experience is a solid reality that needs interpretation and application and must be organized in some coherent fashion. It is in its use, that the greatest disagreements among educators occur.

"If philosophy," as Dewey says, "is for anything, it is not a kind of mumbling in the dark, a form of busy work, it must shed some light upon the path. Life without it must be a different sort of thing than life with it. And the difference it makes must be in us. Philosophy, then, is reflection upon social ideals, and education is the effort to actualize them in human behavior." The educational philosopher then sheds some light upon the values to be achieved in the educational enterprise.

Curriculum experts help provide group "know-how" and give counsel and advise.

School administrators have the responsibility of helping to develop policies and plans for implementing the policies thus developed. The management of things and people and the development of good coordination are essentials of effective program designing.

From each of the above participants comes a contribution—each insufficient in itself. But to provide coherence, comprehensiveness, continuity, and balance, each contribution must be related to each and all of the others.

A HIGH HOPE FOR TODAY

This is a long story. Therefore, a complete or total answer is impossible in the time and space provided here. It is my intention to raise some fundamental questions which relate to the problem "What educational program is needed in the junior high school?" and to try to provide some answers to them. It is my high hope that out of these answers will come, not agreement necessarily, but further group thinking, discussion, and action.

SOME FUNDAMENTAL QUESTIONS

If organized education purposefully and intelligently seeks to discharge its responsibility, we, in it, must have reasons for what we do. A sequence of fundamental questions, which seems to me to hold prospect for answering our question would include:

1. What are the functions of junior high schools today? Why?
2. What is the relationship between school functions and the educational program?
3. In changing or improving the program, what three factors must receive serious study?

4. Of what might the program consist?
5. How might it be organized?

EARLY FUNCTIONS

The early junior high school was organized to perform certain specific functions. It was thought that it could perform these tasks better than any other branch or level of the school system. Briggs, one of the greatest interpreters of the junior high movement, believed the functions of the junior high school in 1920 to be:

1. To continue, in so far as it may seem wise and possible and in a gradually lessening degree, common integrating education.
2. To ascertain and reasonably to satisfy pupils' important immediate and assured future needs.
3. To explore by means of materials in themselves worth-while the interests, aptitudes, and capacities of pupils.
4. To reveal to pupils, by materials otherwise justifiable, the possibilities in the major fields of learning.
5. To start each pupil on the career which, as a result of the exploratory courses, he, the school, and his parents are convinced is most likely to be of profit to him and to the investing state.¹

In an attempt to keep educational practice in step with educational belief, the early junior high school program (and even today) consisted of a long list of subjects usually borrowed from the senior high school program. Some of them were, mathematics, history, geography, civics, English, science, physical and health education, foreign language, shop, home economics, music, and commerce. (It was believed that in starting these subjects in the junior high school, there would be an economy of time in later school life.)

WHY CHANGE?

Wise educators are pleasantly dissatisfied with things as they are. They are constantly trying to find new and better ways of doing old things. In addition, they seek new problems that either have recently been discovered or which have long awaited solution.

Several factors were at work to bring about change. Among them were compulsory attendance laws, the inability of labor to absorb youth as workers, the number of pupils staying in school, the similarities and great differences among the students in growth, capacity for and rate of learning, and society's stake in each learner as an improver of our way of life. The interaction of all of these has brought about need for change in functions of the junior high school.

TODAY'S FUNCTIONS

A recent study of the opinions of twelve specialists in the junior high school field was made by Gruhn and Douglass. The latter published their revised statement of functions as follows:

¹Thomas H. Briggs. *The Junior High School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1920. Ch. 6.

Function I. Integration. "To provide learning experiences in which pupils may use the skills, attitudes, interests, ideals, and understandings previously acquired in such a way that these will become co-ordinated and integrated into effective and wholesome pupil behavior.

To provide for all pupils a broad, general, and common education in the basic knowledges and skills which will lead to wholesome, well-integrated behavior, attitudes, interests, ideals, and understandings.

Function II. Exploration. To lead pupils to discover and explore their specialized interests, aptitudes, and abilities as a basis for decisions regarding educational opportunities.

To lead pupils to discover and explore their specialized interests, aptitudes, and abilities as a basis for present and future vocational decisions.

To stimulate pupils and provide opportunities for them to develop a continually widening range of cultural, social, civic, avocational, and recreational interests.

Function III. Guidance. To assist pupils to make intelligent decisions regarding present educational activities and opportunities and to prepare them to make future educational decisions.

To assist pupils to make intelligent decisions regarding present vocational opportunities and to prepare them to make future vocational decisions.

To assist pupils to make satisfactory mental, emotional, and social adjustments in their growth toward wholesome, well-adjusted personalities.

To stimulate and prepare pupils to participate as effectively as possible in learning activities so that they may reach the maximum development of their personal powers and qualities.

Function IV. Differentiation. To provide differentiated educational facilities and opportunities suited to the varying backgrounds, interests, aptitudes, abilities, personalities, and needs of pupils in order that each pupil may realize most economically and completely the ultimate aims of education.

Function V. Socialization. To provide increasingly for learning experiences designed to prepare pupils for effective and satisfying participation in the present complex social order.

To provide increasingly for learning experiences designed to prepare pupils to adjust themselves and contribute to future developments and changes in that social order.

Function VI. Articulation. To provide a gradual transition from pre-adolescent education to an educational program suited to the needs and interests of adolescent boys and girls.²

RELATION BETWEEN FUNCTIONS AND PROGRAM

There should be a direct and positive relationship between the job that the school needs to do and the educational program. The principle involved here is that the program should consist of those planned experiences, activities, etc., that seem to hold the greatest promise in creating, building, and developing the kind of boys and girls that society needs—limited only by the learners' nature, needs, interests, and individual powers of achievement.

BASES FOR DECISIONS

There are three bases upon which the decisions to improve the educational program must rest. They are: (1) What is the culture like

²William T. Gruhn and Harl R. Douglass. *The Modern Junior High School*. New York: The Ronald Press Company. 1947. pp. 59-60.

that supports the program? (2) What values are to be achieved? (3) What are the natures and needs of the individuals to be taught?

Schools are society's organized attempt at self-preservation and self-improvement. Public education, therefore, cannot be separated from the American culture of which it is a part. The analysis of our society and our way of life must have an effect upon the educational program. It must include those understandings, knowledges, skills, attitudes, and other desirable outcomes that are thought helpful in continuing and improving the American Way of Life.

George Counts in *The Prospects of American Democracy*, in discussing social education, sets forth as the fundamental needs of youth: an abiding faith in the democratic way of life and the ability to read, listen, look and act with understanding in solving problems of contemporary life. To achieve these things, Counts believes youth and the total population need knowledge and understanding of:

1. The nature and history of man
2. The story of American democracy
3. The rise of industrial civilization
4. The present structure of American society
5. The contradictions and conflicts of the contemporary world
6. Social ideas, philosophies, and programs now in competition
7. The agencies and methods of propaganda in current use
8. The purposes and potentialities of American democracy.¹

American democracy has within it certain values that are peculiar to it. It emphasizes a respect for the individual and a faith in his unique worth; the willingness and ability to participate co-operatively and peacefully, faith in the intelligence of common man and willingness to use reason, a belief that through mutual respect, co-operative action, and use of intelligence man can achieve peace, prosperity, and happiness.

The study of the nature and needs of the individuals to be taught is another equally important factor. The following four aspects of adolescent development have tremendous implications for the educational program: the physical, mental, social, and emotional development of youth.

PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT

Adolescence is a period of rapid growth and change. The skeleton grows, the glands develop, the internal organs grow, the brain becomes more complex; in fact, there is hardly an organ in the body that is not in some way changed between the onset of adolescence and its end. If teachers are to be able to cope successfully with clumsiness, poor co-ordination, emotional outbursts, restlessness, and irritability of adolescent boys and girls, they must understand their physical development and the natural concomitants of rapid physical growth.

¹George Counts. *The Prospects of American Democracy*. New York: John Day. 1938. Ch. IX, X.

MENTAL DEVELOPMENT

Jersild reports that: "During adolescence there is a continuation of mental growth—but the rate of growth seems to taper off during the late teens. At the same time the youth tends to increase his information, knowledge, ability to draw upon past experience, increased ability to make decisions, to form judgments, to exercise common sense, and so forth...."⁴

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Being a gregarious animal, each of us in our everyday living needs the support of people to make life worth while. Our family, our friends, and our co-workers determine to a great extent the amount of joy and satisfaction we have in our daily living. The sense of belonging will come to a child if he is accepted by his peer group as important. In addition to this feeling of belonging, each person tends to seek out some individual or individuals with whom he can establish close confidential relations. As boys and girls go through the period of adolescent development, they become increasingly conscious of these needs for emotional support.

EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The emotional life of the adolescent is involved in all aspects of his physical, mental and social development. He is concerned with his private life, with himself, with superiority and inferiority, with guilt or pride, with apprehension or pleasant expectancy, and the like. He is concerned, too, with his feelings and relations with other people wherein joys, resentment, fears, and the like are present.

It should be understood that the information relating to the physical, mental, social, and emotional development of adolescents should never be considered as separate entities. Each individual is an organic unit functioning as a unit at all times. The value of such information to teachers and school administrators will be in direct proportion to the extent that it is applied to actual classroom situations.

TODAY'S PROGRAM

The educational program in the junior high school of today must be built on an understanding of the culture and its demands upon the individual and an understanding of adolescent growth and development. The experiences and activities in the program must provide opportunity to develop ideas, understandings, knowledges, skills, attitudes, and behavior that meet the imperative educational needs of youth. Numbered among the opportunities should be:

⁴Arthur Jersild. *Child Development and the Curriculum*. New York: The Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation. 1946. pp. 183-184.

1. An opportunity to know about and participate intelligently in the life of school, home, and community; to understand and appreciate the rights and responsibilities of youth to each other, to their country, and to the world; and then through the process of critical thinking to act on that understanding and appreciation.

2. An opportunity to understand themselves and their fellows, their physical selves, their mental selves, their social selves, and their emotional selves, and then to seek self improvement in these various aspects of growth and development and to become familiar with and to be able to use the scientific method.

3. An opportunity to extend their facility in language and number.

4. An opportunity to know and understand the world of things and people.

5. An opportunity to develop these understandings and skills necessary to success in the world of work (not vocational education).

6. An opportunity to enjoy the beauties of life (through study and participation).

7. An opportunity to choose and use their spare time (leisure time) to the greatest advantage.

THE SUBJECT AREAS

An examination of the above opportunities reveals the various subject areas that might be helpful to youth in developing understanding and intelligent behavior necessary to happy and successful living: art (fine and industrial), business education, English (language arts), health and safety, home economics, mathematics, music, physical education, science, and shop.

PROGRAM ORGANIZATION

The study of *Offerings and Enrollments in High School Subjects* (1948-49) as published by the Office of Education indicates that most of the junior high schools in the country make a subject approach to the educational program. Most of the time was, and probably still is, taken up in English, social studies (principally American history and community civics), mathematics, home economics, physical education, health, and science—and to a lesser degree in industrial arts, art and music.

There is evidence that the subject approach is sometimes vitalized by using the problem approach and involving the pupils in a co-operative fashion in planning and carrying out the plans. Within the subjects, attempts are made to individualize assignments. Slow learners are helped through remedial instruction too. The gifted are provided for through acceleration, grouping, enrichment, and elective courses. This is a step in the right direction.

TRENDS

Gruhn and Douglass, previously mentioned, indicate (p. 93) the more significant trends in the content and organization of the junior high-school curriculum program to be:

1. The trend toward correlation between subjects.
2. The trend toward fusion of related subjects.
3. The trend toward integrated or correlated courses.
4. The trend toward pupil participation in curriculum planning.
5. The trend toward the organization of courses of study into large units.
6. The trend toward correlation of the curriculum with real-life activities outside the school.
7. The trend toward preparation for intelligent consumership and effective home life.
8. The trend toward more adequate preparation for intelligent citizenship.
9. The trend toward postponement of college-preparatory and vocational studies.
10. The trend away from large numbers of differentiated curriculums and courses and toward differentiation within curriculums and courses.

SOME PROGRAMS

One of the most promising and realistic programs for education of those youth of secondary school age for whom the junior high school or the beginning grades of the senior high school most likely will be terminal, is the Program of Life Adjustment. It consists of problems which are related to the present day needs of adolescents in which the subject matter areas find a role to play. The following areas are included:

1. Guidance and Pupil Personnel Services
2. Ethical and Moral Living
3. Citizenship Education
4. Home and Family Living
5. Self-Realization and Use of Leisure
6. Health and Safety
7. Consumer Education
8. Tools of Learning
9. Work Experience

Some programs are in the period of transition. A few illustrations from the *Secondary School Manual for Pennsylvania* might be helpful. It is recommended that the program of studies might consist of:⁸

Grade 7	Periods		Grade 7	Periods
English	5		Social Living	17
Social Studies	5		Mathematics	5
Science & Geography	3-5		Fine Arts	2-4
Mathematics	5	OR	Health Education	2-3
Fine Arts	2-4		Practical Arts	2-4
Physical & Health Education	2-4		School Life Activities	3-4
Guidance & Homeroom	2			
School Life Activities	3-4		TOTAL	35
TOTAL	35			

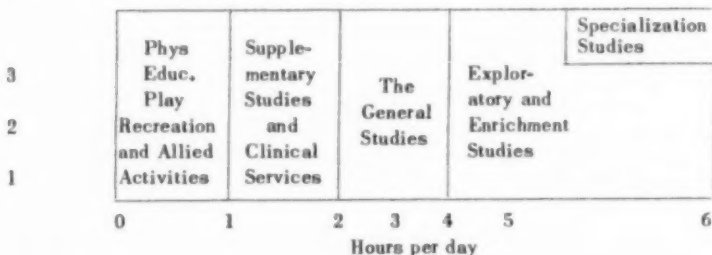
⁸*Secondary School Manual for Pennsylvania*, Bulletin 241 Revised, 1950. pp. 29-30.

The Core Curriculum, an attempt at integrating experiences at the secondary school level, is not commonly found among America's public secondary schools. Of all the secondary schools throughout the country only 833 schools of approximately 24,000 schools (about 3.5%) use this plan of curricular practice. Seven states account for over three-fifths of these schools. California, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New York, and Pennsylvania are the leaders. Percentage-wise, Maryland has almost three times as many core schools as any other state.

The names used to describe the core idea include such terms as "general education," "common learnings," "unified studies," "integrated program," "social living," "basic living," and "problems of living."

It is suggested by some contemporary writers that an attempt be made to make a program that is truly functional. Featherstone, in his *A Functional Curriculum for Youth* discusses the implementation of the Functional Curriculum by providing three large areas—The General Studies, The Exploration Studies, and Specialization Studies. His proposal might be graphed as follows:

Years in Secondary
School



The General Studies provide the matrix for the major activities for general guidance as well as the center for coordinating, evaluating, and exploring the educational significance of many so-called extracurricular activities of the school.... The subject matter of the General Studies—content, activities, experiences—is drawn from, or deals with, the life situations of youth (persistent life problems).

The Exploratory Studies are not new to junior high schools. Practically every kind of activity and subject matter employed in the General Studies should be explicitly made available to pupils in the form of exploratory or enrichment courses.... Provision must assuredly be made for dealing with the major technological, industrial, and commercial enterprises of the community.

Specialization Studies are for ninth grade only. It is doubtless desirable for every youth to find ultimately a specialty or area of concentration, for nothing contributes so much to self confidence and to a feeling of personal worth as the knowledge that one is reasonably expert in some worthy field

of endeavor, whether in archery, architecture, hornplaying, homemaking, cooking, chemistry, zoology, or zither playing.⁶

WHERE DO YOU STAND?

Let us summarize. I said at the outset that I had one high hope for today; namely, that agreement in these matters was not necessary but that others might continue, through study and action, to improve the educational program in the junior high school. Where do you stand? Are the School Subjects the framework of your program? Is the Broad Fields approach more satisfying to you? Do you subscribe to an Integrated Program?

Where I stand is relatively unimportant. But where you and your teachers and community stand is most important to each and all of you. Whenever all of you take stock of where you are—and where you would like to go—take care that in your going you start out with your teachers and school patrons and you go along together every step of the way.

Group IV (Wednesday)—TOPIC: What Are the Current Trends in Guidance Services in the Senior High School?

CHAIRMAN: Willard H. Van Dyke, Superintendent, Tamalpais Union High School District, San Anselmo, California

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

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WHAT ARE THE CURRENT TRENDS IN GUIDANCE SERVICES IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

S. A. HAMRIN

SOME time ago a seventh-grade teacher in a community near where I live suggested to the youngsters at the opening of school in the fall that each should write a short paper. She further indicated that the topic could be of their own choosing. She added that some of them might like to write about some experience of their previous summer vacation. One little seventh-grade boy raised his hand after a few moments, and when the teacher came to his seat he asked if he could write an essay on "Man, His Growth and Development." The teacher

⁶William B. Featherstone. *A Functional Curriculum for Youth*. New York American Book Co. 1950. Ch. VII.

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was startled, of course, but good sport that she was, said, "Yes, of course you may." This is the essay which that seventh-grade boy wrote.

Man, His Growth and Development

Six months—all lungs

Five years—all ears

Fourteen years—all hands and feet

Twenty-one years—all muscle, beauty, and brains

Forty-five years—all paunch

Eighty years—all in.

If that is an account of life, then guidance should help a person to live adequately at his present age and get ready for the next age. In treating the topic assigned I should like to suggest that there are four current trends in guidance services in the senior high school. Of course, you must remember that a university professor interprets trends in terms of what he'd like to find as well as in the light of what he does find. However, some surveys have been made recently in Midwestern states which give some basis for these trends which I shall suggest.

AN ORGANIZED PROGRAM OF COUNSELING IS THE HEART OF A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

I want to give emphasis in my discussion to the need for an organized program of counseling. In my judgment each youngster in the senior high school is entitled to an interview twice a year. These interviews normally would run from thirty minutes up to a full class period.

Counseling is the point at which guidance aids the individual person with the problem with which he is concerned at that time. Very often I say that there are at least four aspects of counseling. The first is gaining an understanding of the individual. A part of this understanding will come through a study of the available information before the individual interview. Test scores which have been recorded over a period of time will have been analyzed as well as the other aspects of the student's rather complete record. The second part of the counseling effort is concerned with the individual interview or the talking out process. Here the individual student and the counselor try to think about the student and his problems in a way which will be helpful to the counselee. The third aspect of counseling is the marshalling of resources by counselor and counselee to help the individual student. Some of these resources are within the individual himself, some within the school, some within the home, and others within the wider community. A good counselor is a resourceful person, one who knows the facilities which can be of assistance to the individual student. The fourth and final aspect of counseling is following through the interview in order to see that the total program of counseling has been of value to the individual student.

If each youngster is to have an interview twice a year, this means that someone on the secondary school staff must have a period free daily for every seventy-five to one hundred pupils. This is not only a standard of your own organization, but is the figure which has been arrived at by everyone dealing with the problem.

Normally the counseling will be planned around that aspect of the student's life which is of greatest importance to him at a given time. For example, the initial interview on entrance to the ninth grade will be concerned with orientation, and the counselor will often start out by asking the student how he is getting along. The counselor, of course, is wise to begin counseling with these students who are thought to be likely to have difficulties because of physical or academic limitations. Toward the end of the ninth grade in the second semester the interview will ordinarily be concerned with helping the student to make his three-year plan for the remainder of his high school program. Two good themes for the tenth-grade conferences are those of personal and social adjustment. Here again the individual counseling should be co-ordinated with any group guidance program in use at that level. During the eleventh grade the student should be particularly concerned with the question of vocational planning. If this is put off until the twelfth grade there is no time for the student in high school to readjust his program. The eleventh grade is the last opportunity for a student to do thinking about vocations and to make an adjustment in his high school program in line with such thinking. At the twelfth-grade level there are two topics which are always of interest. One is placement, either in another educational institution or on the job. Further, the high school should be concerned in aiding the senior in learning about all possible resources for helping him to solve his immediate and future problems. This will often include agencies outside of the school but within the community itself.

It is not easy for teachers to learn to counsel, though in my judgment, by so doing they will also improve their teaching. A counselor must not only be effective as a speaker, but also as a listener. It is not easy for one who has been taught to teach to learn to listen effectively. Counseling is helping youngsters to think and to feel correctly relative to their own individual problems and situations. I would not subscribe wholly to the non-directive approach in counseling. I feel, however, that school counselors have often been too highly directive in the past and that primarily counseling should proceed by promoting understanding—the understanding of a student by himself rather than only by the counselor. Further, counseling involves clarification which in my judgment is very different from coercion. During the counseling period the counselor should attempt first to understand the individual in his various relationships and then to help him understand himself. Some of the views of the individual which must be taken into account are those of him as a physical person, as a member

of a family, at school, at play, at work, with his friends, and particularly as he looks at himself.

INSTRUCTION FOR GROUPS WHENEVER POSSIBLE

As one works with individuals through individual counseling, one cannot help but discover certain common needs and common problems in a given situation. These needs may be for orientation to the school, for further information about vocations, for assistance in making educational plans, for a better adjustment to the present family living, and for placement. It is my very firm opinion that common needs for assistance in these regards can and should be met through group procedures. To disseminate information which is needed by many students through individual counseling is a very wasteful process.

We have three general procedures by means of which we can help students with common problems. One is to introduce this kind of information into our present curriculum. The life adjustment program with which many of you are acquainted, and which holds forth much promise, is a method in harmony with this view. I frequently refer to it as putting new wine into old bottles. I should like to remind you, however, that before you can put any new wine in, you must pour out some of the old wine. This means that we must constantly be rethinking the material in our present curriculum. A second method would be to remake the curriculum drastically. Dr. Bossing of the University of Minnesota thinks that in the main we must revise our curriculum from top to bottom and that we should throw out the present program and remake the new curriculum around the needs of students. I would not go this far, partly because I do not think it is feasible at the present time. The third and last procedure is to introduce such materials and methods into the home-room program. The home-room period must be of sufficient length for group instruction, if it is to serve such a purpose. With such a plan the home room for freshmen will be concerned with orientation and educational planning; for sophomores, with family living, personal and social adjustments; for juniors with the problem of vocations; and for seniors with placement and the utilization of community resources. To use a concrete illustration, I would like to suggest that in my judgment no student should be graduated from a modern secondary school who does not have a knowledge of the principles of sound mental hygiene. On the other hand, I would not teach a course in mental hygiene as a distinct course in most of our schools at the present time. I would put its essential ideas into courses in social studies, English, and biological science in such a way that every student would have some contact with them at some time. Or it could have a significant place in home-room programs.

Fortunately, we have a great deal of new worthwhile materials published by such companies as the National Forum and Science Research Associates which makes it possible for us to utilize these

fine materials either in the home room or as I think more appropriate in the regular school curriculum without entirely discarding the present framework.

I would like to make one general suggestion about the teaching of occupations. In the past I think we have talked too much about trends in occupations and not enough about replacements. For example, the trend in actuarial work is decidedly up, but the number of persons so affected is comparatively small. It would, therefore, receive a very minor place in a group discussion. The purpose of teaching occupations is primarily to give an over-view, or as I like to call it, a bird's-eye view of occupations. It will not of and by itself help a student particularly in choosing an occupation, except as it is linked to a testing and counseling program, or one of work-experience which will aid him to become realistic about himself as a possible worker in a given occupation. What a student needs, in addition to a bird's-eye view is what I like to call a worm's-eye view. He probably gets this better through work-experience than in any other way.

PRECISION TESTING IS TAKING THE PLACE OF SATURATION TESTING

I have a friend in a secondary school who likes to tell about the large number of tests which are given to every student in his school. This is what I would like to refer to as saturation testing. I think we are over the peak as far as that kind of testing is concerned and that in its place we must begin to think in terms of precision testing. I believe that there should be a minimum general testing program spread over the four years of a four-year high school. In the ninth grade we would probably have an academic aptitude test, an achievement test, and an interest inventory. In the tenth grade we might very well test for reading ability and also give an inventory relative to mental health or personality. In the eleventh grade we would give another interest inventory and do some special aptitude testing, depending upon the tentative plans of the student himself. The reason for giving an interest inventory both in the ninth and in the eleventh grade is in order that we may see the changes which have taken place in the student's interests during this particular period of time. I am as much concerned with the change in a student's interests as I am in the actual measured interests. In the twelfth grade we will do some further academic aptitude testing, particularly for those who wish to go on to college. There is no need to do this kind of testing for the youngster who does not plan to go on with his work.

As a result of the general testing, the information revealed which is pertinent to the student should be given to him individually or in such a way that he will know how he stands compared to other members of the class and also to people generally. I think the percentile rank is the most satisfactory method to do this. I want you to realize that the picture that counts is the one which the student has of himself and not that which the counselor has of the individual.

As teachers and counselors we tend to overemphasize the academic. At the same time we do not give enough emphasis to other aspects which may be of a great deal of importance to the individual in many types of endeavor. You are perhaps all acquainted with the story relative to Joe Louis. When he was in the seventh grade in a Detroit Public School his teacher wrote on the report card that went home to his mother, "Dear Mrs. Barrows: Joe doesn't get along very well academically, but I think he might learn to do something with his hands." Who are we to say that Joe, with the use of those hands, has been less successful than many of us, both for himself and for his own people?

THE PART WHICH EACH TEACHER CAN PLAY IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

If we were to delegate all of the guidance functions to well-trained personnel, it would be at least twenty years in my judgment before there would be enough of such personnel to go around. Even if this were possible, I am not at all sure that it would be a desirable situation. I think that the classroom teacher has a role to plan in guidance and a very significant one. The classroom teacher in order to teach effectively must learn to understand her own pupils and adjust the subject matter to the kind of people that she has at the present time. Of course, the classroom teacher does not determine in the first place whether or not an individual student is put into her class, and this must be decided by the general counselor, or as I like to call him, the teacher-counselor. The teacher-counselor is an individual who is trained as a teacher and spends part of his or her time teaching, but some part in counseling, for which this teacher has interest, aptitude, and some training.

Every once in a while an undergraduate student in the University will come to me and say, "I would like to be a counselor." Invariably I then ask him what his teaching field is to be, and quite often the student will say, "But I don't want to teach. I only want to be a counselor." I very often say, "If I were the principal of a secondary school, I would not want you as a counselor if you were not interested in and prepared to teach. The primary function of the secondary school is teaching, and the purpose of counseling is to make the teaching most effective for the individual student. The time may very well come when you will spend a considerable portion of your time counseling, but I am sure that you will never be a good secondary school counselor until you have had some teaching experience and are sympathetic and interested in the total school program." The teacher is a member of the personnel team. The counselor is a member. The principal is a member. Each may play a somewhat different role, but each must be conscious of the over-all task which is to be performed.

A fifteen-year old boy in the city of Chicago got a job as an office boy down in the Loop during the past summer. When he had been at work

for about a week, he wondered how he was getting along. He did not have the courage to ask the boss directly but waited until he saw that the boss was seated at his desk so that he would be likely to answer the telephone. He slipped downstairs to a drug store and used the pay telephone, dialing the office. When the boss answered the phone, the boy asked in a disguised voice, "Do you need an office boy?" The man replied, "No, we have an office boy," Then the boy asked, "How is he getting along?" And the reply came that he was doing a very satisfactory job. At that the boy beamed and hung up the receiver. A drug clerk, turning to him, asked, "Why were you calling your own office?" The boy said, "Oh, I was just checking up on myself to see how I'm getting along."

I think the primary purpose of a convention such as this is for us to think through with other individuals some of the current trends in those aspects of the secondary school program in which we are concerned. In this particular group we have been interested in guidance services. By a mutual exchange of thinking we not only check up on ourselves, but aid one another to look ahead.

A stranger was trying to find his way to the post office in the city of Boston, Massachusetts. He saw one whom he took to be a native and asked him for the directions. The native started to indicate to him one way that he might reach the post office and then, after giving those directions in great detail, said that he didn't think that was a very good way and began to suggest a second way. After a moment he said that that wasn't a very good way either. The stranger looked at the native, and the native said, "Well to be honest about it, mister, this isn't a very good place to start from."

I would like to suggest in closing that each of us must start from where he now is. Then he may begin to think through a program which will help him to move toward the place where he would like to be.

WHAT ARE THE CURRENT TRENDS IN GUIDANCE SERVICES IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

WALDO J. KINDIG

THE rapid growth of guidance services in the senior high school of the nation is a result, in a considerable measure, of the leadership of the high school principals. This is not an arm chair decision, but an impression gained from a number of sources: (1) a review of the literature in the field; (2) consultation with counselor trainers; (3) a confer-

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ence with the staff of the Guidance and Personnel Branch of the U. S. Office of Education; (4) questionnaires returned by ten state supervisors of guidance; (5) seven counselor-trainers, and (6) eleven high-school principals or guidance personnel. Twenty-one states were represented in the returns. The observations expressed here represent neither a scholarly dissertation on the subject nor exhaustive research in the area. They are, instead, a compilation of comments from the six sources named.

It may be of interest to you to know that we now have approximately 12,300 counselors in 4,000 schools, a growth of more than 3,000 in four years. These figures show a marked increase in several states. In eight years (1938-1946) the number of counselors increased by 300 in Massachusetts, by 200 in North Carolina, by 500 in California, by 300 in Ohio, and by 600 in New York. The number of counselors has continued to increase during a period of decreased enrollment. The present counselor-teacher ratio is approximately one counselor to 400 pupils. An optimum ratio, according to the U. S. Office, is about 300 pupils for each counselor or 50 pupils per period for 6 periods of the school day. A considerable stimulus has been given to states which have benefited by the George Barden Act of 1946. Despite this growth, only half the students of our senior high schools have counseling that represents an organized service. Twelve current trends will be reviewed in this paper.

1. Testing and Measurements and Their Use.

Over a period of sixteen years, organized testing programs in schools increased from 52% to 90%. All indications in this area stress the need of testing to be used for individual counseling. There is an increase in the so-called non-intellectual battery type of tests. The multiple factor batteries seem to be in greatest evidence including: (1) Mental ability, (2) Mental maturity, (3) Achievement, (4) Aptitudes, (5) Personality, (6) Vocational interest inventories, and (7) Pupil problems. (23) (24) (25) (26) It is noted that there is an interest in tests to identify emotional patterns for profile analyses. A need is expressed for more validating of tests against acceptable criteria. (23) There is also an expressed need for a better understanding of predictive tests, their possibilities and their limitations. (23) The national and grade median has, to some measure given way to the establishment and use of local norms. (25) (24) One high school stated "more testing for individual use and less I.Q. for I.Q. sake." (24)

There is still a considerable lag in test usage; for example, while one-third of the schools of one state administer some form of reading test, less than one in seven interpret the results in the interview. (22)

2. Cumulative Record Forms and Usage.

It is difficult to identify a trend toward any one type of cumulative record form, as the forms in use vary with almost every report. Some

schools are using a folder, with inserts of pertinent data, while many use a printed card. (24) (15) (25) (23) Revision, identified as a trend, has taken many directions. Some express a need for a more complete history of the child from pre-school through elementary and high school, and a follow-up post high-school record including additional formal training and job placement. (26) It is felt that there is a need to examine the cumulative record in order to identify irrelevant and unused information. (24) There is some reference also as to the desirability of more descriptive material and anecdotal information.

Delaware reports a state adopted form. (25) Most sources indicate that the form should be developed by the local school as an in-service project of the guidance staff and a committee of teachers. (26) South Orange, New Jersey, developed its form by such a method, and feels that the information this included is more significant and is put to more frequent use by the teachers. (26) High schools state that, along with other uses, the record provides a background of information about the student that is helpful not only in preparing the counselor for individual interviews with students, but in promoting a basis for discussing cases with teachers.

There is a trend in practice to take the cumulative record off the mystery list. Parents, students, and teachers are being given more information regarding the individual student. It is felt that in this way the tool becomes a functional instrument in the counseling service with the counselor still responsible for the interpretation of the recorded information. In some of the Arkansas schools the students themselves record the data on their cumulative records in duplicate, the office retaining one copy and the student possessing the other. (26) Some states, however, are restricted in the use of information by law. New Jersey schools are not permitted to use for job placement items such as the photograph, nationality, race and color, birthplace, religion, or church preference.

3. *Individual Counseling*

The most outstanding trend indicated in this area is found in the role of the counselor in the interview. The majority of returns show that the non-directive procedure is gaining in favor, with many schools fluctuating between the directive and non-directive method. (26) (24) (25) (23) One counselor trainer stated "...the trend is toward a deeper sense of counseling using a broader base of sociological background. (23) Another reports "the concept of guidance is concerned less with types and categories such as vocational guidance, educational guidance, and civic guidance but more emphasis is given to the self-concept of the client and the operational field." (23)

As counselors become better trained, there is a greater improvement in interview techniques. One return stated that there is a need for more continuous guidance service throughout childhood, youth and

adult life with preventive measures being a prime motive. There was no indication of this viewpoint becoming current in practice. (23)

Some schools still insist, as an administrative measure, that a certain number of counselees be seen for a certain length of time over a given period but the trend is moving away from this viewpoint to one of giving the student the time and help that will vary with the individual need. The amount of time devoted to individual counseling varies but one state office, Delaware, indicated that the counselor devotes approximately 60% or more of his time to individual counseling. (25)

4. *Guidance Through Groups*

There is a very definite trend toward redefining this area and evaluating the procedures. Historically, group guidance was more prevalent in the public schools because of limited guidance personnel and the existing patterns of group instruction. Many responses stated unequivocally that "group guidance cannot be substituted for individual guidance."

Group guidance, however, conducted with observance of the group process and group dynamics can reveal cases of need for individual counseling. (26) (23) Group guidance is also used as a procedure to meet certain common needs of pupils as identified in counseling of many individuals or through research. (26) (24) (23) If it is learned that a number of students have defective eyesight or hearing, a class in sight saving or for the hard of hearing might be organized. It was indicated that considerable attention should be given to research in this area regarding the types of needs that lend themselves to group guidance. Common practices in group guidance are:

1. Orientation of new students to the school. (24) (25) (22)
2. Assembly programs as training in both platform or stage participation or audience attitudes. (24) (12)
3. Occupational information, but not as a substitute for vocational counseling. (24)
4. Vocational conferences are reported as a common practice with some warning against substituting them for vocational or job counseling. (24) (23)
5. Testing that is designed for groups. (24) (25)
6. Social dancing for those who need this training or for better acceptance and added enjoyment at school and community functions.
7. Home-room programs adopted to guidance in this area. (12)
8. Co-operative planning and leadership training in all phases of committee work. (12)
9. Instituting new classes for specific needs. (24)
10. Inclusion in the regular subject matter classes, units in "social usage," "occupations" "personal grooming." The Life Adjustment booklets are used in some schools for this purpose with the instructor's guidance. (12)

Many of the needs might well be met more consistently throughout the course of study instead of being recognized only in isolated subjects.

5. *Educational and Vocational Planning*

Except for occupational information that can be appropriately offered to groups, both educational and vocational planning, it is agreed, are best presented through individual counseling. (26) It is further recommended that the choice of subjects become more liberalized and the total curriculum more fluid to permit a free choice of subject matter closely related to pupil needs and interests. (26)

Personal interest as indicated in the interview, information from test results, and the profile of vocational interest inventories are recognized as having a direct bearing on the student's eventual choice in planning his high-school career.

A trend is noted in the acquisition of a "field and level" concept of career planning in place of any predictive tool as a lasting choice of a specific occupation. (24) (23) (25)

There is a leaning toward more current, realistic occupational information, than that which comes from a textbook that may be inadequate and out of date, shortly after it is placed on the market.

The college counselor-trainers indicate that emphasis is being made in the training program to show the desirability of coordinating information on occupations, research, individual information and other school resources in helping the student acquire a better understanding of himself, his abilities, limitations, and possible indications of success in a given field of occupational interest. This information in self-analysis should be related to his choice of program from year to year in high school. (23) According to the counselor-trainers there is some evidence of this concept in active practice. (23)

6. *College and Vocational Placement*

The counselor is acquiring more information of the requirements and expectations of colleges, and it is recognized that no two institutions of college level have identical goals or a common policy of admission. Counselors are learning that each college has its distinctive characteristics, policy of admission, major interests, and campus life. (24) College placement becomes a problem as individual as the characteristic personality of the graduate himself. More and more the counselor is assuming responsibility for helping the student to apply for admission to those schools in which he can be assimilated as an individual—both academically and socially. (24) The same parallel can be made with his vocational choice, but to a lesser degree.

There is a trend to aid in the adjustment of the graduate in college or in vocational placement while the student is still in high school. This help is given through individual counseling, through visits to the campus or place of business, and through interviewing the admission officer or personnel manager. Group guidance lends itself to some degree in the college or vocational conferences. (24) (23)

Some schools are acquiring specific and current information on college ROTC programs and military service, and are counseling the

male students in this area. The Shaker Heights, Ohio, High School has organized this information for its male graduates.

The use of the state employment agencies is frequently mentioned in the questionnaire responses as sources for placement information in vocational fields. Some schools feel, however, that although they have a close and satisfactory relationship with this office, they do not discharge their total responsibility for vocational placement through this source. They too provide a placement service within the limits of their ability.

7. *Social Adjustment*

A common understanding is revealed to the extent that social adjustment is the student's behavior reaction to his total environment—at home, out of school, and in school. (26) (24) (23) This behavior is also expressed through patterns of suppression, compliance or aggression on the part of the individual in relation to his home, his community, or his school.

Some group guidance is found in this area. Personality analyses inventories and questionnaires are being used as a basis of group discussion on characteristics common to the group.

Out of the group discussion may evolve an opportunity and need for individual counseling. (26) (24) (23) One response indicated a concern for the danger of depressive introspection under untrained guidance with this procedure. (23)

Interest is shown by one group in the relation of the counselor to discipline and attendance. It is the belief of that group that discipline as such should not be the responsibility of the counselor and that tardiness or irregular attendance as routine responsibility are too time-consuming. As a referral, however, these problems may be treated for causes or as a social problem when the case develops the aspects of a behavior pattern. The treatment of such cases after referral to the counselor may take considerable time and effort if one is to help the student identify and define the causes of his social mal-adjustment. (26) (25) Guidance, it is reported, is more concerned with preventative measures that will minimize remedial therapy. This goal may be realized, it is felt, through the many aspects of a good school that meets the needs of pupils as expressed in curriculum, co-curricular offerings, a Life Adjustment program, and teaching of social skills in real situations. The individual will find security through successful performance and recognition of his special contribution to the life of the school. (25) (24) (26) (23)

8. *Follow-up and Evaluation of Guidance Services*

Many references were made to "Criteria for Evaluating Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools," Form B, prepared and published by the Guidance and Personnel Branch of the U. S. Office of Education (17), and the "Evaluative Criteria," Section G, 1950 Edition published by

the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards. (18) Reference is also made to the Minnesota form prepared by the Department of Education of that state (12) and the evaluation techniques and forms employed by the Sub-Committee on Guidance of the Committee on Current Education Problems of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. (18)

Two of the many desirable outcomes of an evaluation are found in the stimulation for improvement realized by the participating school through self-evaluations and in the use of the results for the development of guidance services. (12) (23) (24)

An important phase of an evaluation is found in the follow-up process. The method will vary to the specific need. The Virginia state department of education conducted personal interviews with 740 former students of a school. Some sources found that this method is much more satisfactory than the questionnaire method. (26) Another source presenting a national picture indicates that the follow-up is the weakest area and the one in greatest need of improvement. (22) Another states that the local school counselors are too pressed by immediate responsibility to devote the time for research in this area. (23) A follow-up of the dropouts presents a serious need. (26) Reasons given by students as they leave are not usually the real causes. (24) Perhaps better tools to be used in discovering the real causes of dropout would have an amazing effect on curriculum changes that would affect the holding power of the school.

9. In-Service Training

Considerable growth is found in this area: 42 states provide for supervisors to be responsible for the promotion, development and supervision of guidance programs; 44 states have plans providing for preservice and inservice training in cooperation with state institutions or state supervisory offices. Funds from the George Barden Act are provided for this service. (6) Pilot programs are operative in some states whereby the local school provides the resources and facilities to the state supervisor and staff for in-service training.

Workshops in guidance are most evident where state programs are operative; for example, Iowa recently conducted sixteen in-service training programs in co-operation with the state office and with Iowa State College at Ames. (25) New York conducted 14 in-service workshop conferences, employing the group dynamic process. (26) Some workshops are conducted on a county level. (17)

Other schools report in-service training of counselors through experience in industry and placement offices. (24) Another source indicates that principals are taking leadership in providing in-service training of counselors and guidance personnel. (23) (25)

10. Organization of Guidance Services

On the organization chart the guidance counselor is well accepted as "staff" with lines to administrate, teaching staff and special

services. The counselor's position is better defined and has widened in scope of service. (26) There is a definite trend toward funneling resource information to the counselor from scholastic records and special services. This makes it possible for the student to have a guidance relationship with one person, his counselor. In some of the rural areas where special services present a financial problem to the local school, the problem is being solved on a county basis. This is true in some counties in California; Rockland County, New York; Harlan County, Kentucky; and Breathit County, North Carolina. (26) Delaware reports a trend toward county organization with lay and professional advisory councils on a state and county basis. (25)

11. *Training and Certification of Guidance Personnel*

There is a variety of expressions in these areas but there are two obvious trends—(1) that specialized training is desirable and (2) that certification requirements are definitely being increased.

The results of a Michigan survey indicate that 80% of 220 administrators wish to have guidance courses required as a part of the teacher training preparation. (22) A plea is made by a principal of a colored school in a southern state for better trained counselors for negro students. (24) A counselor trainer indicates that curriculum development will be accelerated by the pointing up of pupil needs by better trained counselors.

The most reliable review of the literature in this field is summarized by Clifford P. Froelich, Specialist for Training Guidance and Personnel Service of the U. S. Office of Education. In the monograph "Guidance Workers' Qualifications" Dr. Froelich reviews 110 references on this subject. He concludes:

There is a bewildering variation in guidance courses offered by colleges and universities. Many instructors in these courses are not associated with professional guidance organizations and these instructors have reported few studies of teaching methods for guidance courses. The desirability of counselor qualifications as demanded by State certification plans remains unconfirmed because no adequate research to support them has been reported. A promising beginning has been in studies of personal qualifications and tests of competence. "To this reviewer, the research most needed in this area should be designed to ascertain the validity of guidance training programs and methods. Such research should be directed toward determining what is essential training for success as a guidance worker and which teaching methods are the best.

In certification it is found that state requirements are being revised and courses are being added: 17 states require state certification for counselors to qualify for reimbursement of salaries from state funds. Most states require 3 years of teaching and 50 weeks of out of school work experience and a year of work in the field of guidance on the graduate level. These standards are of little value unless those who offer counselor training are themselves well qualified including

an experience in counseling in our better schools. The George Barden Act provides for this training. (22)

By 1953 Virginia will require guidance services in the schools to qualify for state funds. The Michigan agreement, under certain requirements, provides for acceptance of students for higher training if the schools provide adequate guidance services. (26) Regional accrediting associations require acceptable guidance programs.

12. *Impact of Guidance on Curriculum Revision*

Although the effect of guidance is slow and the evidence is spotty we find some implementation of guidance research in curriculum changes. The most hopeful promise is found in a marked awareness of the need. Many responses disclosed on both the state and local level indicated that guidance departments can supply an abundance of data from records and experience resources that has a bearing on curriculum adjustment. We cannot expect the counselor to be a curriculum specialist but this service can produce facts. (24) The cumulative records of the average-sized school has thousands of facts and in a large system tens of thousands about pupils enrolled, and about the community. The classification of these facts is the difficult but rewarding task of the guidance program. (15) These facts represent pupil needs, community environment, and resources. They can be made available to the curriculum committee or specialists of the local school system for study and matching against the curriculum offerings. (24) This research is a source for curriculum change based on accurate and scientifically organized data away from the realm of "guess how" to "know how" in revision. The necessary challenge, however, lies with the leadership of the school. It must provide the administrative channels for a revised curriculum that will more nearly meet the purposes of education clearly stated by the Educational Policies Commission.

The principals of our schools may be charged with three responsibilities. The first is to provide adequate individual counseling service for every boy and girl in the school, with such special services as are needed to provide the counselor with adequate information about the student.

The second responsibility is to provide and promote a better articulation of this service with the classroom teaching. Such co-operative channeling would make for the improvement of instruction through a better understanding of the child by both the teacher and the counselor. It would be hoped that such information would help the teacher to individualize his instruction in the light of the interests and needs of the individual child.

The third responsibility is found in using the resources of the guidance department for providing information about the youth and the community that can be reflected in the curriculum of the school. This

responsibility is a challenge to the leadership of the principal, who can use the factual information to support a modern philosophy of education. The administrator is placed in a position of coordinating these areas of guidance and curriculum to provide the teaching experiences that will meet the needs of the youth of the community.

Although we live in a period of confusion and change, the picture of pupil guidance is taking an encouraging form. It should help us approach our work of leadership and of service to young people with renewed confidence that in our strategic position, we can safeguard the way to a better life for the young adults of America.

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Questionnaire Results

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Group V (Wednesday)—TOPIC: How Can Audio-Visual Materials Be Used in the School Program?

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HOW CAN AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS BE USED IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM?

EARL E. SECHRIEST

FOR MANY YEARS there was a dearth of audio-visual materials which are necessary to sustain a school program, and although this has not yet been entirely overcome, we do find sufficient materials now for use in sustaining programs in General Science, Biology, Physics, Geography, the Social Sciences, and Shop. There are also some good materials available in Mental Health and in various phases of Guidance. There is still a shortage in the fields of Mathematics, Languages, and English.

In the equipment field, manufacturers have produced media of which educators have not yet had time to avail themselves. For instance, the educator had hardly decided what he should do with the traditional radio as a teaching tool when FM was placed before him. And although he has not yet had an opportunity to explore the possibilities of FM, he is now confronted with Television—a medium which holds possibilities in the field of education, and one that is at our disposal if we act

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quickly in securing some of the channels available. So we see that at the present time manufacturers in the audio-visual field are far ahead of educators. Materials are now available. It is up to the educator to use them.

The problem of the use of audio-visual materials in the school program involves making accessible to the teacher all the audio-visual services needed to help him to provide a good learning situation within the classroom. It is imperative that certain basic services should be provided in order to have the proper tools to use. Some of these services are:

1. A person in each building especially trained in the use of audio-visual materials.
2. The following equipment should be accessible at all times:
 - a. Standard lantern slide projector
 - b. A combination 2 x 2 and film strip projector
 - c. An opaque projector
 - d. Magnetic tape recorder
 - e. Record player (three speeds), 16-inch transcriptions
 - f. Sound motion picture projector (16mm)
 - g. Daylight screen (new type)
 - h. Radio (FM & AM)
3. Supplies for making learning materials should be available:
 - a. Materials for hand-made lantern slides
 - b. Photographic materials
 - c. Poster and exhibit materials
 - d. Materials for bulletin board
 - e. Materials for sound recordings
4. Opportunities should be provided for field trips, work experiences, *etc.*
5. In-service training in the proper utilization of materials and equipment should be provided for all staff members.
6. An audio-visual library service should be maintained in each school in order to acquaint the teacher with literature in the field. This service should include such items as books, periodicals, teacher's guides, film and slide catalogs, and material lists.

Some materials that should be readily accessible are:

- a. Films
- b. Slides (all kinds)
- c. Strip films, film rolls
- d. Recordings
- e. Live radio programs and television
- f. Picture collections
- g. Exhibits

Teachers often fail to use audio-visual materials simply because they are accessible at the time they are needed. Availability of these materials is of primary importance. Granted this, the matter of

next importance is for the teacher to plan properly for their use, which is to say that he will use these audio-visual materials to the best advantage as tools in the teaching experience.

THE USE OF MATERIALS

1. Use of films

A matter of first importance in the use of films is that of selection. There are approximately one thousand new 16mm educational films being produced each year. Besides these, the classified section of the *Educational Film Guide*¹ lists and gives an index to 8,251 sixteen millimeter motion pictures already available. This educational film guide is a valuable book for users of 16mm motion pictures but many of its listings are bound to be unacceptable. Just as in the selection of books one does not expect to use all that are listed in the catalog, so it is with motion picture listings. Amid this wealth of material the user of educational films can seek dependable information in reviews to be found in audio-visual magazines, and in publications of such organizations as the Educational Film Library Association.² Further help may be gained from a survey of teaching films made some time ago by seven leading book publishers who classified films into five types according to use:³

- a. Films for developing social attitudes and understanding
- b. Films dealing with vocational skills
- c. Films designed to stimulate or motivate interest
- d. Films to provide background
- e. Films designed to teach specific parts or phases of a particular subject

The difficulty and routine of selecting suitable films may discourage many would-be film users, and so we repeat that in each building a person especially trained in audio-visual techniques should head a committee for the selection of films that correlate with their particular curriculum. Correlation lists can then be made available to the various subject teachers.

Important as is the selection of the right film, always remember even a good film is not synonymous with proper use. Neither will the use of films make good teachers out of poor ones. There are techniques for using films for both formal and informal education just as there is a technique for lecturing to a class. Some helpful information on techniques has been provided by the American Council Studies as follows:⁴ *A School Uses Motion Pictures*, *Teaching With Motion Pictures*, and *Motion Pictures in a Modern Curriculum*. The *Eighteenth*

¹*Educational Film Guide*. The H. W. Wilson Co., 1951, New York, N. Y.

²*Educational Film Library Association*, New York, N. Y.

³*A Report to Educators: Teaching Film Survey*, Conducted and Published by Harcourt, Brace Co.; Harper Brothers; Henry Holt & Co.; Houghton Mifflin Co.; The Macmillan Co.; Scott, Foresman; and Scholastics.

⁴American Council on Education Studies—Series II, *Motion Pictures in Education*, Washington, D. C., 1944.

Yearbook by Hartley⁵ is also good. One of the first books to be published on the subject of the use of films was written by Brunstetter⁶ and it is a book that is still worth reading. A recent article in the *Educational Screen* by Carpenter and Greenhill⁷ gives excellent information on the use of films. No teacher should attempt to use films in the classroom until he has seen the motion picture entitled "Using the Classroom Film,"⁸ and he will profit by seeing it more than once. Film users should further consult the *Readers Guide to Periodical Literature*, for it sometimes lists articles which are not found in the regular visual education magazines.

Questions which a teacher should ask himself before using a film are: How does this material fit in with the best educational procedures? What do I hope to accomplish by its use? What unique contribution will it make toward a richer experience for my group? How will it further the pupils' learning activity? Too often the teacher uses a film simply because it seems the accepted thing to do, or, because showing a motion picture may be a good, easy way to fill in the hour as a substitute for a program that has become a bore to the students.

The motion picture has much to contribute to the teaching process. It can achieve certain ends better than any other medium, particularly when the concept to be taught involves motion, animation, time-lapse photography, and slow motion. The motion picture also has important advantages in portraying historical enactments, giving a sense of continuity, and connecting the present with the past. It gives variety in teaching and makes experiences more meaningful to the student.

A key step in the effective use of the film is the preview. There was a time when the film-user had to depend upon the rental library, or to borrow the material from some source that, as a rule, allowed only one-day service. But today many school systems have their own libraries and thereby previewing is much simplified. Some school systems permit a film to stay in a given school for a week so that the teacher has ample time for preview, and also review, purposes. The preview of a film can even, at times, convince the teacher that the best thing to do is to return it to the film library or to the distributor at once without wasting the time of the class by a showing.

The preview should guide the teacher in an effective way to present the film. The teacher's guide accompanying the film should be used in close connection with this. Presentation is important since much of the effectiveness of the classroom use of the film depends upon the way it is presented. It is well, in this connection, to remem-

⁵*Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Council for Social Studies*, Hartley, Wm. H., 1947.

⁶Brunstetter, N. R., *How to Use The Educational Sound Film*, University of Chicago Press, 1937.

⁷Carpenter, C. R. and Greenhill, L. P., *Using Instructional Films Effectively*, *Educational Screen*, October, 1950.

⁸*Encyclopaedia of Britannica Films; Using the Classroom Film* (a motion picture).

ber the three formal steps stated by educators many years ago: (1) preparation, (2) presentation, and (3) follow up. The film is one of the modern scientific contributions to education, but the effectiveness of its use depends upon the skill of the teacher. Carpenter and Greenhill,⁹ in their recent research studies on *Using Instructional Films Effectively*, came to the following conclusions:

- a. Instructional films should communicate meaning to those who would learn from them.
- b. New learning is organized within the context of previous experience and related adjustments.
- c. Learning from films is not passive; it requires effort.
- d. Groups do not learn: individuals do.
- e. Organized and goal-oriented materials are learned most effectively.
- f. Judge and select films by the appropriateness of their contents for the learner, not by their titles.
- g. Most available films are incomplete—teachers and pupils must supplement the film materials in order to fill the gaps.
- h. Available films must be adjusted to the educational levels and abilities of those who learn from them.
- i. The instructional objectives of films should be carefully considered and determined before the films are used.
- j. More than one showing of the film may be necessary.
- k. The instructional materials in films usually need to be related to individual interests, motivation, abilities, and achievements.
- l. It is necessary to teach many students how to learn from films.

2. Slides and Their Use

When we speak of slides we usually think of the standard $3\frac{1}{2} \times 4$ photographic slide or the hand-made lantern slide of the same dimensions. In recent years the 2×2 slide has been in such general use that it also has been considered a standard slide. Most of the $3\frac{1}{2} \times 4$ slides can be obtained from two sources: for the social studies the Yale University Press has an excellent series, while many general topics such as science, geography, reading and the like are available from the Keystone View Company. The 2×2 slides are available from many sources and may be had on a variety of subjects.

Slides are now arranged in small groups of twenty to thirty slides so that they may easily fit in with certain units of work. For the most part, these units of slides have an amazing wealth of tangibles that can be brought to the classroom by the teacher or pupil for the purpose of establishing as close a sensory contact as the subject will permit.

In advance of the showing of the slide, questions asked by the pupils are formulated by the teacher in the light of the objectives of the study unit. It is well also, at the beginning, to associate the subject of the lesson directly or indirectly with the experience of the pupil.

The average slide lesson runs from thirty to forty minutes—the lower the grade the shorter the lesson, other things being equal. Whether one, five, twelve, or a full unit of slides is shown will depend upon the

⁹Opus cit.

time available to a great extent or whether the lesson is given before, during, or after the topic has been studied in the basic text. If used before, the unit is customarily shown as a whole to provide a background upon which to build. When reviewing the subject, it is likewise shown in its entirety. In passing, it may be well to note that series such as the Pageant of America in its manual has a cross reference for additional slides in the collection on the same subject and tells where they may be found. Aids of this type are useful if more exhaustive coverage is desired than that afforded by a given unit. When the slides are shown in direct correlation with the textbook, the number of specific slides available and the intensiveness with which the subject is to be studied will determine whether a single slide will suffice as a "peg" upon which to hang the entire lesson, or whether two or more slides will be used. The teacher will recognize the possibilities afforded by showing the same slide or slides several times at different intervals during the study of some particular phase of the unit being studied.

The spoken commentary to accompany slides may be given either by the teacher or by one or more pupils. The latter plan has the advantage of causing the pupil to engage in simple research preparatory to his presentation of the slides assigned to him.

Furthermore, rich opportunities are afforded for related pupil activities which will help to fix permanently in the pupil's mind things of importance dealing with the topic at hand. Detailed suggestions as to carrying on various projects will be found in all the better manuals for teachers which should accompany the slides.

In summarizing, it seems that the use of lantern slides resolves itself into three phases: (1) preparation, (2) showing, and (3) summation. All three are essential and should be present in some degree. Whether a full lesson period is devoted to each phase, whether one period is given to all three, or whether a compromise is reached will depend upon the time at the teacher's disposal and the intensiveness with which the subject is to be studied.

3. Use of the Film Strip

Like any other visual aid, the film strip has a unique and specific function in the classroom. The teacher should ask himself certain questions before using the film strip. Could this subject matter be treated more effectively through some other medium, such as the motion picture, printed matter, or pictorial illustrations? Could it be treated better by means of classroom discussion, or by dramatization? Does this topic lend itself to a field trip? Should this particular film strip be used for orientation of the study unit or is it to be used as a summary of some experience in the unit?

In selecting film strips for classroom use there are certain characteristics which should be kept in mind, both as to materials portrayed

and as to use. Obviously, where the element of movement or sound is essential the film strip is not an effective medium of portrayal. Furthermore, the film strip and motion picture are not selective. For instance, the science teacher who wishes to illustrate a particular specimen seen on a field trip would do better to choose a slide rather than to use a motion picture or a film strip which are joined together in a pre-planned sequence.

What then is the best use for the film strip? It can and should be used in such a way as to offer a unit of experience. It presents logical operations which follow a definite sequence, for example, "How to Operate a Jig Saw." The film strip of this title vividly presents each operation step by step. Besides presenting materials in logical sequence, real advantages of the film strip are that it reverses easily for review, it can be stopped at any time for discussion, and it can proceed at any speed desired.

Assuming that the teacher has found a suitable film strip which is to serve a given purpose better than other media at hand, what should be the next step? The next step is the preview and plans for presentation. In fact, the same procedure applies here as in using the motion picture.

The use of the film strip is neglected by many educators because they remember what it looked like a number of years ago. No visual aid has undergone as much change as this one. Today the technical quality, content, and general make up of the film strip make it a superb teaching tool.

4. Recordings and Their Use

Sometimes the average teacher is confused about educational recordings. They should know that recordings appear in the following forms: (1) records (33 $\frac{1}{2}$, 45, 78 rpm. and long-playing records), and (2) magnetic tape and wire recordings. He should know the type of recorder available for his use, of course, since this determines the type record he will be able to use.

Records are available in many areas of education and are especially designed for use in teaching history, literature, languages, public speaking, music, and dramatics. Some of the larger commercial companies have arranged their records in series, or albums, according to subject matter and grade level. These are accompanied by teachers' guides. The American Council on Education and the New York University Film Library publish *catalogs of selected recordings* and describe briefly over three hundred suitable for school use. These records are for sale or rent. Teachers using recordings should also write to the United States Office of Education for a copy of *School Sound Recordings and Play-Back Equipment* which lists other sources for obtaining recordings and transcriptions.

Tape recording in the classroom is one of our newer uses of sound as a teaching aid—a device which has already been accepted as a useful teaching tool by many teachers. It will do all that any other type of recorder will do and is flexible, simple, and inexpensive to use. Many schools are making their own tape libraries, and exchange libraries are also becoming popular. The Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Company, St. Paul, Minnesota, has a large selection of tape recordings and will furnish any school with a copy of any subject in their library without cost simply by mailing the company a roll of tape. Schools will want to make recordings of their own also, such as speech, music, and radio programs for future use.

Wire recording is not too practical for school use except purely for reference work. As a rule, the tones are not as natural as in other forms of recording, and for this reason it is impractical for use in speech correction and in music classes.

5. *Radio As a Teaching Tool*

Although educational radio in America dates back some twenty years, it is only since World War II that it has come into general use. A recent log shows 132 educational radio stations. Of this number, one hundred are FM stations, and the others are AM. Some of them operate only on limited schedules. At present there are very few if any TV stations actually in operation on an educational basis.

The use of radio by the classroom teacher has presented many obstacles. First of all, a major problem has been that of scheduling when depending upon commercial stations. Other obstacles are that daytime reception is not good in some areas, and that FM and TV broadcasts have limited coverage. One way of overcoming these obstacles is to give more attention to out-of-school broadcasts. This can be done in two different ways: (1) by recording on disc or tape important broadcasts to use later in the classroom when they fit in with the schedule, and (2) out of school listening can be encouraged from the standpoint of radio appreciation and of interest in news events, drama, etc. Almost any teacher in any school can use radio to this extent. The major broadcasting chains will co-operate by furnishing the teacher with listening guides, and local stations will also furnish copies of their programs.

There is another use of radio which is important and that is participation by students in presenting radio programs over local stations. This is excellent in several ways, particularly for motivating speech work as well as for acquiring studio technique.

6. *Picture Collections*

All teachers at one time or another use some form of pictures in their teaching though some teachers use these materials more than others. All text books today are profusely illustrated. These pictures were carefully selected and put in the text for a specific purpose.

Furthermore, when good teaching is in evidence selected pictures are to be found on the bulletin board. These pictures are changed frequently and some of them are filed away in the picture file for future use. Many teachers have a carefully selected picture file which they keep up to date by adding clippings from current magazines, the press, and other sources. Sometimes the collections are built up by subjects, units, and areas while others are listed alphabetically. Some teachers prefer to mount their pictures on cardboard and show them with the opaque projector. This type of visual education is economical and can be engaged in by both pupils and teacher.

7. The Educational Exhibit

The educational exhibit is closely related to the general public museum as well as to the school museum. As a teaching aid, it has varied uses but two important ones are: (1) to display the pupil's handiwork, such as, things that are made in the home economics classes, school shops, or art department, and (2) to teach subject matter. The exhibit may be very simple—only an object, specimen, or model, or they may be more elaborate.

In metropolitan areas where large public museums are available, schools can utilize these facilities by scheduling regular visits to the museum as a part of the school work. In other areas, where it is not practical to take the children to the museum, traveling exhibits have been arranged. Although these ready-made exhibits are fine, the teacher should not overlook the possibilities of having his pupils construct, mount, and arrange exhibit materials themselves. Such functions as the county fair give impetus to creative activity of this kind while display cases in the hallways of the school also afford opportunities for showing pupils' handiwork.

HOW CAN AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS BE USED IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM?

B. ROY DANIEL

Educational literature is full of good reading about audio-visual materials and their uses. It will not be the purpose of this presentation to review too much of what has been said on the subject. Rather, I shall attempt to present some of the more practical phases of teaching by means of audio-visual aids.

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HOW DOES THE NATURE OF LEARNING REQUIRE THE SENSORY APPROACH?

Man likes to believe that he lives in an age of great abstract thinking and solutions, yet he is aware that the only approach to abstract and verbal experiences is through concrete experiences. As society has become more congested and complex, people have relied less and less upon sensory experiences to learn and have attempted to replace them with word descriptions. The result has been a textbook learning removed from life experiences.

Michael Faraday was quite aware of the principle that his teaching must go from the concrete to the abstract in his lectures. You are invited to read his *Chemical History of a Candle* in which he introduces his learners to real experiences at every step of his teaching.

I once watched one of my vocal music teachers introduce the ideas of time values of notes and of rhythm to a class of seventh grade boys. She began by beating an Indian tom-tom which was on display as the boys entered the room. After informally demonstrating and describing several time signatures, she permitted the boys to try their skill in demonstrating the kinds of notes and simple time signatures. Every boy at the close of the class period knew something about time and showed it later in his music performances. This teacher always attracted the interest of her pupils and gave them the confidence they needed to learn. She had no real discipline problems.

Thus, in the argument for the use of audio-visual teaching aids (sense stimulators) I would remind us about several characteristics of learning. First, learning begins with the concrete and goes to the abstract. The learning process begins with application and the concrete approach is the only way to start, but education must not stop there. Second, interest and motivation are deeply rooted in experience teaching. Third, the disciplines inhere in teaching which involves concrete experiences.

WHAT ARE AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS?

I am taking the liberty of defining audio-visual aids as those devices for teaching which will affect the senses. All teachers are surrounded with many devices which do not call for a great expenditure of money to secure them, and some teachers can supplement such devices with many of the more recent inventions which have become available to schools. Aids should not be considered as being better simply because they are new. Globes, maps, pictures, charts, graphs, textbooks, blackboards, bulletin boards, laboratory equipment and supplies, libraries, home and community enterprises and facilities, slides, films, all kinds of projection materials, radios, phonographs, recording equipment, amplifying equipment, television, reading accelerators, and many other devices are now available to help replace the first-hand experiences

of generations now gone. Our modern problem seems to be one of knowing how to best make use of the facilities we have.

Limitations for the use of every device must be carefully considered along with its possibilities for instruction. The motion picture has great value where the element of motion or the showing of successive stages is required, but it may be better to use another device if the motion is not essential. Novelty in itself, though it may be useful at times, is not too important in the choice of an aid. The chief factor is whether a material or device will contribute to the learning desired.

The use of audio-visual aids in the school program involves administrators, teachers, pupils, procedures, and appraisals of effectiveness of the program. A title which uses the term "school program" first of all indicates some sort of plan for instruction. The element of aimlessness has been eliminated at least as far as purpose is concerned. Some thought and planning have been devoted to the objectives of the learning process, and teachers and facilities have been made available within the limits of the ability of the school system to support its activities. Assuming that teachers and equipment have been provided by a school district, I should like to present some ideas about the part to be played by each of the persons and factors named above in using audio-visual materials.

HOW CAN ADMINISTRATORS HELP IN THE USE OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS?

Administrators can be informed persons. Recent progress in most states on the requirements for administrators' certificates will do much to provide all schools with better prepared leaders. Each administrator should have a sound philosophy of learning which will encourage his teachers to plan the instruction carefully and to use the best methods of presentation. Open and frank discussions between teachers and the administration about the school program, procedures, and evaluations of processes will not only encourage but will inspire teachers to use audio-visual materials in their teaching. Suggestions by alert superintendents, principals, and co-ordinators sometimes start teachers in the use of aids, and praise for a nice job of presentation by a teacher who has done well with some innovation will be sure to produce results with that teacher and with others. Administrators have the responsibility, too, of judging the value of methods and materials used in the school system. Appropriate approvals or suggestions for change will keep a fair balance between too little use and too much enthusiasm for the use of certain kinds of materials.

HOW CAN TEACHERS USE AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS?

The teacher is the most important factor in the teaching process after a place, materials, and pupils have been provided for the instruction.

The learning of children depends largely upon the planning, the procedures, the appraisals, and the follow-up of the teacher.

Pre-service training of teachers should develop a germ of understanding of the nature of learning and how to use the materials of concrete instruction. Each prospective teacher should have one or more good courses in audio-visual education before he receives his certificate to teach. Every possible contact with children should be made while the preparatory courses are taken. After employment, teachers should be given ample opportunity to become acquainted with all available teaching materials. They should be encouraged to use wisely every facility which will lend experience to pupils. Sympathetic guidance by administrators and supervisors should assist teachers to grow in the understanding and use of teaching materials.

The first step of procedure in using audio-visual materials is careful planning. Materials used must teach something with purpose. The use of audio-visual materials should be as much a part of the normal lesson as the reading material itself. Textbook illustrations, pictures, visitations, laboratory experiences, films, phonograph records, *etc.*, all should fit naturally into the procedure. The teacher should bear in mind that children must learn a definite something from each lesson, and purposeful planning is necessary to achieve the learning of that something. Other things not planned for may be learned also, but all learning cannot be left to chance. Planning will include the collection or preparation of materials as well as the procedures for the use of them. Opportunity should be provided for pupils to experience something in the lesson. There is a loss of time and purpose when pupils just "go to see a picture show." Planning will provide for motivation, finding of information, organization of the information, and the use of it. Sometimes the effectiveness of audio-visual materials is lessened by a lack of readiness which the pupils have because the teacher's planning has been inadequate.

It is necessary that the use of audio-visual materials be recognized by both teachers and pupils as a part of the whole learning process and not as a separated feature. The story of the old cow puncher pretty well illustrates the point. When a younger man, the puncher taught his son and later his grandson how to ride untamed horses. He went along with them and gave them experience with some famed unconquered horses, and they learned to ride. Later the grandson moved to a large city where he entered a business which did not permit him to visit his old home. He married and had a son who was growing up in the city out of contact with horses of any kind. The great grandfather, now old and beyond the stage of breaking bronses, attempted to teach the boy how to tame horses by telling him all about the past and how to ride. The boy enjoyed the stories and pictures and learned some great word pictures, but he did not acquire the skill to break bronses. That real experience was far separated from the mental picture. Another lesson had been

learned by the boy. Through conversation, pictures, movies, and trophies and possessions of his great grandfather he came into an understanding and appreciation of cowboy life which would have been incomplete without the audio-visual materials used in his instruction.

Teachers should not drift into an attitude of using audio-visual materials which would strengthen the instruction just because it is not convenient to use them. Science teachers and others who use laboratories regularly consider the laboratory planning and preparation as a necessary part of their teaching. Teachers of other subjects must also plan and prepare for the use of available materials if their instruction keeps pace with the whole program. Administrators and co-ordinators can and must make facilities available and convenient as far as possible, but they must also encourage teachers to do the planning and preparation needed for effective teaching.

An evaluation of the methods and materials used in teaching must be made frequently. If materials do not make the instruction more effective, they should be changed or discarded. Some materials are good for some purposes and useless for others. It is possible also to change the method of presentation. Courses and plans for the following year should show changes in the use of audio-visual materials which would make the course more effective. Rental films, motion picture films, and slide films to be purchased; slides, projection equipment, laboratory equipment and supplies; maps, books, and all other needed materials for the next school year should be requisitioned at the *close* of school, or *earlier*, to insure their arrival at the appropriate time.

SUMMARY

1. The use of audio-visual materials is essential in a school program because programs are purposely planned arrangements for the learning of children, and children learn by starting with the concrete and going on to the abstract.

2. Administrators must be informed persons who have a sound philosophy of education. They must encourage and assist teachers in the use of audio-visual materials.

3. Teachers should have pre-service training in the use of audio-visual materials and should continue effective in-service training after employment.

4. Careful planning for the use of audio-visual materials and studied evaluation of their effectiveness are necessary.

5. The use of audio-visual materials must be an integral part of the whole instruction. It must give the learner a real purposeful experience.

6. The mechanics of the school program must assure learners that concrete experiences are not apart and separate from other phases of the learning experience.

7. Teachers should feel the responsibility for preparing audio-visual materials for use in the same way all other preparation is made.

Group VI (Wednesday)—TOPIC: How Can Family-Life Education be more Effective?

CHAIRMAN: *Harry M. Rice*, Principal, Bloomfield Senior High School, Bloomfield, New Jersey

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HOW CAN FAMILY-LIFE EDUCATION BE MORE EFFECTIVE?

PHILIP SCHWEICKHARD

EVEN though we are its beneficiaries to an important degree, we schoolmasters did not invent family life. For that circumstance we need feel no humiliation, for the Russians didn't either. Our embarrassment begins when we are called upon to explain why we were so long in discovering it, and once having done so, in recognizing and accepting it into the sphere of public educational responsibility. Nor would it have been so serious a default if the schools had simply ignored it. Through the interest of public health organizations, foundations, and other agencies, various aspects of family life education have been making encouraging progress for half a century without our blessing. What is really awkward to account for is the dogged purpose with which some communities resisted, and still resist, the infiltration of social hygiene education behind the academic iron curtain which they have drawn about their schools. We are now almost in the clear, however. Through the pioneering of forces, largely outside of the schools, this age old area has become recognized as an important concern of society and communities generally are expecting their schools to do something about it.

ORIENTATION OF VIEWPOINT

An emerging change in point of view seems to present the most important and the most encouraging prospect for more effective family life education. It is a recognition and admission that the schools have no exclusive franchise for the operation of the educative process. Some functions, to be sure, are its peculiar forte and have been largely surrendered to it as has instruction in the three R's. But its most im-

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portant responsibilities are shared jointly with other agencies such as the homes, the community, the churches, libraries, welfare organizations, the courts, movies, radio, T. V., the press, *etc.* The relative responsibility of the school with respect to that of any other given agency will vary tremendously according to the comparative fitness and readiness of the various agencies to undertake it. The point is that in most of the important responsibilities of the school it does not control all of the educative factors involved and can achieve maximum success only through the effective pooling of its efforts with the other forces which are concerned with it in the attainment of the sought-for social objective. Family life education clearly falls in this category.

Evidence is accumulating that the effectiveness of a school is determined by factors which operate pretty well beyond the school's control. Paul Mort in his work with The Metropolitan School Study Council has concluded that the one factor above all others which determines the effectiveness of a school is the nature of the community in which it is situated. What a school may be able to do if it has the purpose, will be determined to an important extent by the consent, encouragement, and support which its community may accord it. The factor next most important in making a school effective, thinks Mort, is the character of the school leadership. The professional training of teachers ranks third.

The New York State Department of Education has just issued a very brief report on a study of the holding power of its high schools. Of some one thousand public and private secondary schools of the state, twenty nine which showed unusually high holding power were selected for co-operative study in an attempt to determine what made their students continue with them until graduation. The schools varied in size from 130 to 1,138 pupils, in all sorts of districts—rural, village, and city; some offered restricted, others elaborate curriculum patterns. The report concluded that there seemed to be no type of school, no pattern of course offerings, no activities program responsible for holding children in school, but that the nature of the community, its attitude toward, and its co-operation with the school seemed to emerge along with the character of the administration, the teacher-pupil relationships, the recognition of pupil needs and the tenure and experience of the staff as the factors of greatest importance in determining the power of a high school to keep its pupils connected.

If it be true that the general effectiveness of a school is so closely related to the community, it should surely be apparent that its family life education is especially sensitive to that relationship since it is more extensively the community's business than almost anything in which the school is concerned.

I have said that the school didn't invent family life. Neither did it invent family life education. The social hygiene aspects of it seem to have been the outgrowth of the venereal disease control activities

of public health associations and date back fifty years. More recently broader aspects of family living have engaged the attention of welfare and other agencies and the courts during the quarter century when governments have manifested more solicitude for the family and its problems. As the schools now migrate beyond the limits of their original "home economics" homestead into this well explored and settled domain, they would do well to move with due humility and in a spirit of studied so-operation with those who have occupied the land longer than they.

THROUGH UTILIZATION OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The nearest stock title which we can readily locate on the professional shelf for this resource in making family life education more effective is "the utilization of community resources." The preponderance of the resources for such education are to be found in the homes. Practically every pupil comes from a *bona fide* laboratory of home life, which presents the basic situations of family living with far greater fidelity than anything that could be recreated in the school even under the most favorable of circumstances. Many of the conditioning factors which will influence deeply the eventual adjustment of a person to family living will have stamped their indelible impressions on the child before the school shall ever have contact with him. Means must be employed of influencing these factors early enough to benefit him. Many schools are now employing parent education workers in their adult education programs to accomplish this purpose. Child study groups, mental hygiene classes, child care and home nursing courses, and the like in the adult education programs of many schools are good examples of what is being done indirectly to condition the child to successful family living before the school ever sees him. Other agencies and organizations are busy in this field as well and must be considered in any public school program.

The now famous Oregon educational program for family living, for example, originated not in the schools but in the joint endeavors of the E. C. Brown Trust and the Division of Social Hygiene, Oregon Tuberculosis Association. It does not presume to stake out a claim of its own, but endeavors to work through groups already established. The schools with their parent education programs and organizations have been most effective outlets for that program which has two purposes: to promulgate the information on which improved family living may be based and to condition the attitudes which will finally control anything that is to happen. The undertaking is tied in with education by an arrangement which makes the president of the University of Oregon the administrator of the trust. This trust produced the widely used film "Human Growth." Surely, utilize established and going community resources. Their materials and programs are often ahead of anything the schools, lately come into the field, may have.

Then there is the problem of public consent and support which must be settled before it is advisable, or often possible, to embark on certain basically significant aspects of preparation for marriage and family life.

A very vital PTA in one community had been discussing the need for social hygiene instruction in its high school. A special action committee interviewed the principal. "Yes," he agreed it was important; "Yes," he knew it was being done successfully in some places; "but," he reminded them of other places where it had precipitated community rows that had set the whole program back for years. He was sure that the instruction shouldn't be given by professionals; he had had unfortunate experience with that, but none of the teachers or parents knew just what handle to take hold of. He pledged himself as very willing to embark on a program which a large and representative group of sensible parents might approve, and a parent advisory committee was formed. He asked the Board of Education to send a number of key teachers for special courses at the University of Pennsylvania and to Cincinnati to find out how to go about it. These teachers worked with the parent advisory committee in preparing a course of study which has become part of the mandated health course for all tenth graders. It meets daily for a full year and covers physical health, mental health, and human behavior and deals extensively with human relations—courtship and marriage and reproduction. It uses many of the films that have frequently proved controversial. It is popular with students and the pride of the PTA and has never been subject to adverse community reaction. Each fall as some 250 new students start the course, their parents are invited to several successive evening sessions in small groups. The course is explained to them, and they are shown some of the visual aids. The purpose is to assure the school of the continued understanding of parents which was so essential when the undertaking was started and to benefit from their advice and cooperation in making modifications. In studying the effects of alcoholism on family life, pupils in the course are taken to the Sunday morning sessions of the sunrise court in the large city to which this community is suburban. Parents of the pupils accompany them and their teacher. Little moralizing is called for in revealing to them the sordid effects of drunkenness.

In this community a lay advisory committee works with the director of adult education in the planning of the parent education activities of the school.

THROUGH INTEGRATION OF THE PROGRAM WITHIN THE SCHOOL

We are on more familiar ground when we urge as the next most hopeful procedure for making family life education more effective the integration of such education with the entire program of the school. Since we have more control of what goes on within our walls, this

would seem to be easier. Because of our accustomed way of regarding subject fields as mutually exclusive, it actually may be more difficult. Those who have worked with lay committees often observe a venturesomeness of ideas, a boldness of action, and a willingness to try, which is not so common in the teaching fraternity. This integration should operate along two axes. First it should extend to ALL of the children in the school, at some time at least, in their high-school careers, and secondly, it should enlist the attention of all teachers whose subjects have anything to contribute to family living, and that takes in most of them. Educators need not be reminded that there is no area of life in which so high a proportion of children are and will be involved all of their lives as that of family living. It involves the boys as definitely if not as extensively as the girls. How inadequate, then, must any approach be if it affect only the girls, or only such of them as can find the program space to elect home economics subjects to varying degrees. Or, if boys are included, how limited its usefulness will be if only those who have the time and the disposition to elect the cooking or the family life or the preparation for marriage or like courses, are reached.

This is not to say that voluntary participation in family life study is not valuable. The best time to learn anything is when one wants to. One of the most significant undertakings in this line which I know of is at South Kortright, New York. It is organized as a perfectly voluntary, non-credit, informal group of senior boys and girls about Edward A. Burke, principal, who is well qualified by personality, maturity, common sense, and public confidence for such a task. But it is so important for all pupils that schedule provision should be made for all to get basic instruction. I have mentioned including it as an important component of a required one year health course in the tenth or eleventh grade as one way of achieving this end.

A much more promising means of reaching all would seem to be through integration with the subject fields. The advisory committee on Social Hygiene Education, New Jersey State Department of Public Instruction, has outlined such a course very helpfully. It lists the considerations which should be presented in an adequate course of family life education. Call them units and details of the course of study, if you will. To the right of each item it lists the subjects which should contribute to teaching it. Social studies, English, home economics, science, and physical and health education seem to draw most of the assignments. One's own ingenuity can suggest rich potentialities in foreign language, industrial arts, mathematics, business education, and other subjects, also. It would be difficult to name a subject which conceivably has no responsibility in the field. What the outline does not do is to show the technic by which each subject teacher is to pause for identification and get in the "plug" for family life education at the opportune times. Teachers will have to study the technics

of subject matter integration in the secondary school much more extensively before family life education can benefit greatly from this type of integration.

We may look toward the core curriculum development with greater hope in this respect. Quite possibly that is to be the opening wedge to achieve better subject matter integration generally.

In Kingston, New York, the curriculum in the tenth grade is cored about *Family Life Education*. It absorbs the subject areas of English, Social Studies, and Health. Such an evolution, together with the emergence of general education in the secondary schools, would seem to offer the brightest prospect for the more effective teaching of family life education of anything within the immediate control of schoolmasters.

HOW CAN FAMILY-LIFE EDUCATION BE MORE EFFECTIVE?

L. B. HOWLAND

THE MOST important objective in life is to live a Life. The objective of this Life is that it may be full of achievement and free from major frustrations. As is the Home, so is the Nation. The survival and success of the nation rests upon the home for a foundation. Since before ancient times, the very perpetuation of the race has depended upon the security of the family unit; much of the culture of society has descended and been enhanced through the family.

WELFARE OF THE INDIVIDUAL

Our first thesis has for its major consideration the welfare of the individual. The pleasures, activities, progress and rights of the individual have long been the centers of interest in our secondary schools. All of us are agreed upon the importance of the individual in our society. However, most of the individuals now in our schools will be living their lives as members of their own family units in a few years. The success of each family will, for most of them, be the measure of achievement of their individual lives. It will be noted that the word "success" of the family is used rather than happiness. A successful family has more than mere happiness. In this life none can hope to escape all unhappiness. Of course, we hope to be able to train for family living so that some problems may be avoided. But problems there will be, and helping to solve these problems is the major purpose of our family life education.

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SUCCESS OF THE FAMILY

In our second thesis we are concerned with the success of the family in its contribution to the state. A universal unstable family life will mean an unstable state. And, conversely, unless the state is made stable there can be no stability of family life and no great security for the individual. Here we do not have two different reasons for desiring successful family life, but two aspects of the same reason each complementing the other. Today we are committed to the belief that our nation must be strong in order to survive. And our family unit must be secure and functioning well if our nation is to be strong.

SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

Acceptance of the foregoing, I believe, will vary only in the degree of that acceptance, and if we accept these two theses, then the only reason we can give for not placing the study of the problems of family relations along with the social adjustments of all individuals in the forefront of our educational objectives is that of a naive belief that understanding and solutions of these problems will be obtained after they are met in adult, and, in some cases, not so adult life. We might be complimenting ourselves when we claim to have thought about it at all.

Studies show that approximately one-fourth of our youth come from homes either broken or disrupted by death, economic disaster, divorce, or other reasons. We cannot expect this segment of our school population to "inherit" a desirable pattern of family living. Neither can we expect a very large proportion of the rest of our youth to "inherit" this pattern in the same way that was taken for granted, probably no later than a generation ago. The shift of population from rural to urban, the increase in apartment dwelling, the decrease in the necessity or even opportunity for the youth to work in the home, the increase in commercial recreation, the increase in the number of working mothers—all these and many other factors have brought about different patterns of family living which necessitate new understandings and adjustments.

One of the ways in which we can make family life education more effective is to have more of it. In *Education for Family Life* the statement is made that the educational offerings for marriage and family life, regardless of source, are pitifully inadequate to meet the demand.¹ From the foregoing, it seems safe to say that in many or most schools an awareness of the need for family life education is the first step toward making it more effective.

MAKING FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION EFFECTIVE

Making family life education more effective does not necessarily mean adding an additional course to an overcrowded curriculum. And

¹*Education for Family Life*—Nineteenth Year Book. p. 126. American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C. 1941.

it certainly does not mean leaving that education until the latter years of high school. However, an organized course of study—in other words, a class in Family Life Education on the senior level—is very much to be desired. The greatest effectiveness of such a class can be achieved at senior maturity level as will be pointed out later. And it should be noted that many secondary schools are doing good work along those lines.

Family Life Education should begin in the first grade of school; and probably a pretty good job is done, of a necessity, at that level by the successful teacher. But from then on, I fear that in most of our schools the proportionate emphasis on Education for Family Living, based on potentiality of the child, becomes less and less. Not only does the proportionate emphasis become less, but that which is taught moves away from the emotional to the practical. This change, if it means something added, is to a certain extent desirable, but because it never gets back to the emotional, something is left out. The practical things that are taught are listed later.

Having briefly outlined the case for Family Life Education—and we are hopeful that this is all that is necessary—we now consider two factors, a knowledge and understanding of which will help in the improvement of this education.

DIFFICULTIES INVOLVED

First let us consider the difficulties involved in family life education. Then we shall survey some of the things that are being done in family life education. Certainly there is at least a minimum in any modern high school. "Any learning which contributes to understanding of self, helps the individual to move toward the achievement of a recognized goal, gives him courage for his aspirations, and fosters a better adjustment of relationships both within and outside the home is education for living in families."²

Perhaps the first and greatest difficulty in the way of more effective family life education as mentioned above, is that the awareness of its need is not so universal as we would like to believe. Perhaps the superintendent, perhaps the principal, perhaps a few teachers, have this awareness; but it stops with them.

And in some communities there may be a popular feeling that such education is beyond the scope of the school. This opposition usually comes from people who, because of their educational and economic status, feel able to hand down any necessary customs of family living. But the heterogeneity of the population certainly presents problems for the first grade teacher—previously lauded for her recognition of the importance of the family—who has to face the emotional turmoil in the non-loved and even unwanted child.

²*Idem*, p. 126.

One of the biggest difficulties from the standpoint of the secondary school is getting additional activities into an already crowded curriculum. And if one means of improvement which is adopted is the addition of a course in family living, finding the personnel to conduct such a course presents another problem. Any person who cannot consider the most personal of problems objectively, frankly, and sympathetically and answer young people's questions in the same way should not try to handle such a course. And to know what to teach and where to teach it throughout the curriculum of the school, or in a separate course, is by no means the least of the problems involved. There are other general difficulties of which each school will have its own.

CREATING AWARENESS OF NEED

The method of overcoming the difficulties mentioned above will vary, of course, with the individual school. The superintendent and principal as professional leaders in education in their local situations will surely find ways of bringing out the awareness of the need for family life education. There is a wealth of material available to supplement personal observations of the child and family in that community.

The parents in the upper socio-economic strata who may see no need for family life education should be the easiest to convince that *some*, at least, is necessary in the school. Because of their education they should readily understand that patterns of life are changing. It might be stated parenthetically here that no program of family life education will be successful unless it includes the co-operation of parents and other agencies of the community.

Overcoming the difficulty of getting additional activities into an already overcrowded curriculum would seem to be a matter of evaluation. If we accept our opening theses, then finding a place for this type of training becomes imperative. It would be presumptuous to say what might be eliminated in any curriculum without knowing the needs of the pupils in the school having that curriculum. Perhaps some "dead wood" among courses can be found. Perhaps some courses, or some of their content can be justified only by tradition; and they may not be meeting the educational needs of present-day youth. Perhaps greater efficiency in teaching what is already in the curriculum will provide time for this "extra" activity of family life education.

Perhaps the greatest difficulty of all is that of personnel. Surely this would be true if an additional course is offered. But if the need is felt, trained persons will become available. Where the increased emphasis on family life education is distributed throughout the curriculum, particular aspects can be handled by different teachers according to their abilities and personalities. As to what to teach, that can be fairly well ascertained by looking through the contents of one of the several good text books published by established publishing houses. One very useful publication is *Education for Family Life*—the Nineteenth Yearbook

of the American Association of School Administrators—to which references are made in this paper. The content that is to be taught and where it is to be taught can then be brought out in a series of professional faculty meetings.

The foregoing answers to the difficulties enumerated are, of necessity, incomplete. But they may serve to set up thought which will bring about satisfactory solutions.

FAMILY LIFE IN THE CURRICULUM

Without doubt some family life education is carried on throughout all of school life. The historical aspects of family life and its impact upon society are touched on in all the social studies. Budgeting of family resources is a project in arithmetic and business training; sewing, cooking, child care, *etc.*, are in every home economics course. Industrial arts courses make some contributions as do classes in health education. The study of personal and public health is carried on in civics and science courses. Units in vocations, in whatever course found, are important. Any vocational training, wherever found, is obviously important to the individual as a person and as a member of his family. There is some education in matters of sex in general science and biology.

The foregoing paragraph contains an incomplete list of what we have designated as the practical aspects of family life. Just as we have seen changes in emphasis in various parts of our curriculum come about through changes in the attitudes of administrators and teachers toward their importance, so it will be, we believe, in Family Life Education. If teachers recognize this type of training as necessary, the amount of material dealing with family life education within established courses will be increased. Not only will the material be increased, but the teaching will become more meaningful. Budget making, for example, will not be a mere exercise in arithmetic but it will become a real life situation to the pupil. Training in social adjustment of the pupil will be broadened to include training in the more intimate adjustment of family life. None of this, of course, will come about by itself, but by a great deal of conscious effort on the part of curriculum makers and teachers.

THE QUESTION OF SEX EDUCATION

Education in matters dealing with sex was mentioned above as one of the practical aspects of family life that is being taught. This particular subject is today probably one of the most controversial. But those who are familiar with lavatory literature and art know that education of a sort along these lines has already taken place. There seems little objection to the teaching of the facts of life as it is conducted in the sciences. But when sex education is mentioned, a hullabaloo

arises. Perhaps this hullabaloo is justified. Possibly the term "sex education" would seem to some to represent education in sex practices, and to many it would be another factor added to all those now too prevalent, tending to glorify and over-emphasize sex. If sex education in family life is placed in its proper perspective as an important aspect of marriage, but as only one of many important aspects, we can't help believing that much of the opposition will be silenced.

But it is necessary to go farther in sex education than instruction in the facts of life. Boys and girls of high-school age are going to "date." They need to know in advance some of the emotional responses that physical association may bring about. It is during the senior year that this dating becomes more extensive, and the social activities involved keep getting farther away from parental control. If the pupil is now mature enough to be left in situations where only his own training in self-control is the mentor of his conduct, then he is mature enough to have the training to prepare him for these situations.

More "thou shalt not" admonishing against giving in to physical impulses will not be any more successful with many young people than it was in the Garden of Eden. In dealing with the emotional aspects of sex matters, the opportunity presents itself to show how necessary it is to postpone the culmination of physical gratification until marriage. Not only is the opportunity to show this presented, to bring out this idea, but the placing of the sex aspects of marriage on a high plane of dignity and sacred emotional response will also supplement, if it does not supplant, the "thou shalt not" in providing the necessary mental and emotional equipment to overcome tensions of the physical environments which surround much dating. Such teachings should to a large extent overcome vulgarity with knowledge, and doubt and fear with understanding and guidance.

To any who object to the inclusion of the immediate foregoing into the course in family living, on account of the immaturity of the pupils, it might be asked by what magic does the girl become old enough to marry within a few weeks or months of high school graduation, or worse still, of those who don't wait for graduation. It might be argued that such courses can be had in college. And for most of those who will attend college there is some validity to this argument. However, youth are still living and learning one way or another, even before entering college; and since the majority of our youth do not enter college, this large group, of course, misses such opportunities. Indeed, we are concerned with the large percent of our high-school pupils who drop out before their senior year and so miss the training of the class in family living, if it is set up in the senior year. However, if they have attended a family-life-education conscious school, they will have benefited to the same extent that they have benefited from the rest of their school life.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

There are many agencies providing information on family life, marriage counseling, and youth counseling. A very important part of the family life education program in high school is to acquaint our pupils with these sources of information and inspiration. Perhaps therein lies a measure of solution of the problem of the drop-outs, if some way can be found to direct the pupil leaving school to these agencies. It is just as important for the ninth grades to know where to go for advice on marriage as where to go for advice on vocations.

SUMMARY

We have established the need for family life education in our schools. We have pointed out that our awareness of this need is one of the first steps toward making it more effective. Some difficulties in implementing this type of training were pointed out with some possible answers to those difficulties. Some opportunities were shown for stressing family life education in present curricula and a course in family life education during the senior year was suggested. The physical-emotional aspect of marriage was suggested as having a proper place in such a course.

In dealing with controversial issues in this education for family living, as for example in matters of sex, the whole problem should be approached with good sense. While the school should lead, it should not get too far ahead of the community. Objectivity should be the key word. When we have more effective family life education we shall have better families and a better nation.

Group VII (Wednesday)—TOPIC: How Can We Promote Desirable Teacher-Student Relationships?

CHAIRMAN: *Kenneth M. Hurlbert*, Principal, Inglewood High School, Inglewood, California

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HOW CAN WE PROMOTE DESIRABLE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS?

OTTO HUGHES

PUPIL-TEACHER relationship may just as well be stated as teacher-pupil relationship. It is not only how the teacher feels toward the

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pupils that counts but also how the pupils feel toward the teacher. It is an inter-related experience shared by both teacher and pupil. Although the major responsibility rests with the teacher, since she is charged with the responsibility of creating a learning situation, the pupil also has a responsibility of co-operating in making possible an atmosphere of friendly understanding.

School administrators are constantly working toward providing a situation in which this feeling of mutual co-operation makes possible the most desirable learning situation for each pupil. The organization of the student council, the expansion of the co-curricular program, and curricular revision all contribute toward the realization of the basic aim and objective of desirable pupil-teacher relationship. Douglass emphasizes the need for a better understanding of the behavior pattern of the child, "...to the end that all pupils may live effectively, now and in the future, both for themselves and for society, in all common areas of living."¹

Evaluations and surveys are continually being made on local and state levels in many school systems with a view to discovering better ways and means of improving the learning situation of the pupils enrolled in the public schools. Such a state-wide study was made in Indiana in 1949 by the Indiana School Study Commission under the sponsorship of the Indiana State Teachers Association. In a report of the findings of this commission, it was pointed out that, "There is far too little evidence that all schools are adapting the school education experiences to the needs of the pupils."² This would indicate that much work remains to be done if desirable pupil-teacher relationships are to become a reality.

The widespread organization of student councils during the past quarter of a century in secondary schools throughout the country indicates the increasing desire upon the part of secondary-school administrators to bring about a better understanding of the basic needs of youth who now are citizens in a democratic school environment and who tomorrow will be citizens in a world-wide community.

Pupils who are either officers or members of a student council receive training under guidance in those practices that help them acquire more desirable citizenship traits. While pupils in high school, they receive experiences for democratic living now, as well as training for adult living.

Although there is no rigid dividing line between regular classroom activities and those activities which have been called "extracurricular," the activities that are not strictly curricular generally allow for more pupil freedom and are usually pupil initiated and directed. Excellent

¹Douglass, Harl R. and others, *Education For Life Adjustment*, p. 67. The Ronald Press, New York. 1950.

²Indiana School Study Commission, *An Evaluation of the Indiana Public Schools*, p. 97. The Commission, Indianapolis. Jan. 1949.

opportunity is provided through the extracurricular activities for a very informal, co-operative experience for teacher and pupils based upon the particular interest of the individual pupils. One of the guiding principles upon which the secondary school extracurricular program is evaluated as stated in the *Evaluative Criteria Manual* is that in a pupil activity program "...pupils should share responsibility for selecting, organizing, and evaluating the activities and outcomes. In all activities, development of democratic leadership and followership abilities should be a major objective."

Many schools are constantly studying their curricular offerings and making adjustments in them to meet the ever changing needs of pupils. An experiment is currently being conducted in the seventh and eighth grades in the school of which the writer is principal. This experiment centers around the introduction of a core program in language arts and social studies. Although the idea is not new in the sense that it is original, it is a change of curricular practice as far as this school is concerned. It was started in the seventh grade as a core in the language arts-social studies areas. It has since been extended in the same subject matter areas to the eighth grade. The pupils in each of the seventh and eighth grades have the same teacher two hours in either the morning or in the afternoon. During these two-hour blocks of time, language arts and social studies are fused; many individual and group activities are encouraged in which pupils and teachers co-operate in planning. Since the teachers of the fused language arts and social studies programs also serve as home room teachers for their pupils, the guidance point of view toward the individual pupil permeates the plan. Thus a feeling of "belonging" is shared by each pupil.

If the secondary schools of America are to continue to make wide appeal to the youth of the country, those charged with the responsibility of providing for the basic needs of youth must continue to explore every possible approach to desirable pupil-teacher relationships. Teachers need to be made aware of the responsibility of helping pupils understand teachers as well as to be alerted constantly to discovering ways of insuring a more friendly, co-operative spirit between pupils and teachers.

³Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria*, p. 193. Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards, Washington, D. C. 1950.

STUDY ABROAD

Administrators and teachers interested in studying abroad during the summer of 1952 can secure information from Anthony S. Pinter, President, Study Abroad, Inc., 250 West 57th St., New York 19, N. Y. This organization has recently distributed literature on six well-planned study programs, including "Italy and her Civilization," "History of Europe," "Art," "Music," "Social Problems," and "The Sorbonne."

HOW CAN WE PROMOTE DESIRABLE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS?

R. B. NORMAN

OUR FIRST impression is that the question to be answered is elementary. Everyone from the college professor of psychology to the man on the street corner to the tow headed boy in the third grade has an answer. Peculiarly enough their answers may be correct, but only to the extent they are effective and adequate. This is an age-old question. It has been asked since pupil and teacher first got together and just as often. Likewise, it has also been answered as often. Apparently the answers have not been wholly effective or adequate, else the question would not now receive a prominent place on the program of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Finding the correct answer is important for it involves human relations around which all of our classroom, school, community, state, national, and world relations revolve. Fortunately, two humble principals have not been assigned the question: "How may we *have perfect* pupil-teacher relations," but only how may we *improve* upon them. The principal cause underlying the difficulty of the question is that it deals with the human element as varied as the number of individuals involved. There is no one formula by which problems involving human equations may be solved. Scarcely may a group of individuals be assembled so homogeneously that they may be measured by the same yardstick. Aside from such basic drives as hunger, sex, fear, and the desire for security, there is little to which we can refer as common to all individuals.

The answer to the question suggests increased emphasis and study upon the subjects of human growth and development and human relations. The human relations element extends throughout the school from pupil to pupil, from pupil to teacher, from teacher to principal, and from school to parent and the public. These relations determine the learning situations in the school. They are the most important things in our lives. The relationship of child to mother, and to a lesser degree to teacher, determines his emotional climate, affections, feeling of belonging, status with his peers, ways of meeting needs, process of working with people, whether domineering or sharing, and finally, gives him his concept of self and the relations of others to him. The pupil's need for relationships with people goes on long after the need for the 3 R's has ended. In the home and in the school, the pupil gets his most important learning through his face-to-face relationships with teacher, other pupils, and the principal. For this reason, should

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we not spend more time in developing an environment in which human relations are good, rather than laboring on the course of study or subject matter? There is no meaning in subject-matter if human relations are bad. The meaning that is important is in the people concerned, their attitudes, feelings, status, and relations to each other. The value is in Henry, not in algebra.

A clear understanding on the part of the teacher of the processes of human growth and development, and a working knowledge of the psychological processes involved in learning may contribute much to improved pupil-teacher relations. There are many in-service education programs of human growth and development under way now in this country. The anecdotal case study method popularized by Daniel Prescott of the University of Maryland, is widely employed as a device for learning to diagnose and prescribe for individuals with problems, or needs. Teachers are organized into small discussion groups where the anecdotal records are read, discussed, and interpreted in the light of the pupil's other school records, his behavior patterns, the related readings on the psychology of human behavior and growth in which the teachers may have engaged, the total experience of the teacher and help which they may receive through consultant specialists. Much improvement in human understanding as well as human sympathy is being claimed for teachers where these studies are in progress. One of the valuable by-products of such studies is the development in teachers of the observing attitude of their pupil's behavior and the subsequent attempt to analyze the underlying causes. Still another change noted in teachers thus engaged is their growth in tolerance and their resort to more constructive methods of dealing with pupils than the arbitrary or authoritarian type. Admittedly, mutual understanding as between two or more individuals engaged in a co-operative undertaking is desirable, and this current movement in the field of the psychology of adolescent understanding may contribute much to the improvement of pupil-teacher relations.

The value of teacher understanding of the importance of human relations and human growth and development can scarcely be over-emphasized for their possible contribution to the subject of this discussion. There are other basic or fundamental conditions, or situations in any given school that may have considerable influence upon teacher-student relations. Among these are: (1) The School Spirit, (2) Democracy in the School, (3) The Co-operative Enterprise Attitude, (4) Student Participation in School Management, (5) The Pupil Activities Program, (6) The Work Attitude, (7) The Public Relations Program, (8) Working Conditions and Teacher Morale, (9) The Social Activities. Time will not permit a full development of all the ways in which these factors may influence teacher-student relationships, but we hope to point up a few of them.

SCHOOL SPIRIT

School spirit may be built up about the traditions of the school as a nucleus. These traditions should include a knowledge by pupils of the history and significance of such factors as: (1) The history of the school, the philosophy, the objectives, the academic standing, the record for preparation for students for vocational competence and life-adjustment, the record of achievement in competitive interschool activities, the cost of operation of the school, the professional preparation of the faculty, the accepted standards of conduct for pupils, *etc.* (2) Such traditional events as home-coming, the big bon fire, the Halloween hop, Back-to-School Night, the Christmas pageant, the Popularity Ball, Federal R. O. T. C. inspection, the big pep rallies, the Corrigan or Sadie Hawkins dance, the Junior-Senior prom, Kid Day for seniors, the district, regional and state Interscholastic meets, the musical festivals and contests, the assembly sing-songs, Western Day, college orientation day, the senior play, the senior trek, the senior banquet and dance, graduation exercises, *etc.* Orientation and participation in these traditional knowledges and activities by pupils offer fine opportunities for the development of school spirit and its attendant effect upon teacher-student relations.

DEMOCRATIC PRACTICES IN THE SCHOOL

There may have been a time, though we have our doubts, when the minds of secondary-school youth were so conditioned by rigorous home discipline that autocratic, arbitrary, and authoritarian practices in the school and classroom succeeded fairly well, but if so, those days are gone forever. Not only do parents no longer exercise stern control over their children by authoritative and forceful means, but they will not support the teachers of their children in so doing. The youth of today, those who have been properly reared in the homes, have been conditioned for democracy. Obedience and co-operation from them has been obtained, if at all, by parents who reasoned, who persuaded, who bartered privilege for responsibility, who built up ideals, and who operated as a pal on the same level with the child. From this situation has come generations of youth who want to know the reason, who want to have a voice in the determination of their fates. Their minds are conditioned only for democracy. The principal or teacher blind to this condition will have a sorry time in obtaining from pupils of today wholesome co-operation. Every individual craves for himself recognition of his worth, or more. The least he may expect is a part in the planning for his future. If pupils do not have some part in planning the affairs of the school, they are not going to feel that it has been planned for them. Rather will they more likely feel that the planning has been more for the convenience and expediency of the faculty than for their welfare. Because, for a brief period, autocracy is more efficient than

democracy, many principals and teachers resort to it. Autocracy fits well the indolent principal or teacher who is more concerned with efficiency than with the growth and development of human beings. With the generation of youth we have on our hands today, we can visualize authoritarian regimentation only as a barrier to the promotion of better teacher-student relations.

I want to stop here long enough to say that the youngsters of today are the best trained in sportsmanship in all the world. Their sense of fairness is the highest developed to be found anywhere. Fairness, with pupils, is the nearest synonym of democracy. They can not conceive of democracy under arbitrary rule which does not take into account the individual as well as the group welfare. Pupils readily admit the necessity for rules and regulations for authority. Pupils do not favor anarchy nor unrestrained liberty of conduct. Many tests have proved this. Recently in a large high school, a majority of the members of a class asked for an appointment with the principal. The substance of their complaint was to the effect that there was no planned program of work for the class, that the pupils were placed too much upon their own, that they were told to work but not how to work, that they were being commended by the teacher for work which they were not doing, that there was no honest evaluation of the work which they did do, and that in brief, they were wasting their time. They represented that the teacher was sincere, had many desirable personal qualities, knew his subject field, but was utterly lacking in the capacity for classroom management, organization of subject-matter, and methods of teaching. The point of this story is that teacher-pupil relationship does not always revolve about the personal qualities of pupils and teachers with their resulting clashes or congenialities. Pupils admire firmness and business-like methods in teachers along with fairness.

The speaker attended a three-weeks conference on high-school problems at a large university last summer. Practically all of the first week was devoted to a discussion and balloting on what problems would receive attention and the methods to be used in attacking them. He became very impatient, but in the process learned a lot about teacher-student planning, democratic practices, group dynamics, giving and taking, hard thinking, evaluation, how to carry his point, the importance of patience and poise and how to save time and move efficiently once the real problem solving begins. While thinking what to say on this occasion, I visited a number of classrooms and discussed the subject with students. The students were asked by way of comparison which more nearly expressed the ideal relationship between teacher and student, that of: (1) Employer-Employee; (2) Policemen-Citizen; (3) Master-Servant; (4) Parent-Child; (5) Shepherd-Flock; (6) Leader-Follower; or (7) Worker-Co-worker.

Without prompting, the Worker-Co-worker relationship was selected by every room. In a school or classroom where this philosophy pre-

vails, there is a feeling of mutual responsibility, equal opportunity, and absence of tensions.

Like good public relations, democracy also originates in the classroom. In many high schools, there are examples of well developed practices in democratic classroom management. In the Amarillo High School, a man in his late thirties was pulled from the manager's job in a private machine shop and placed in the high school to teach vocational metals. He had never taught. He was efficient, commanding, and high tempered. His teacher-student relationships were all but good. We were uneasy whether he would survive the first year. He began experimenting with democratic practices and the relationships began to improve. After some four or five years, he has developed a procedure that is the envy of the other members of the faculty. The shop and machines are kept clean and in order, everybody works, a congenial atmosphere prevails, the teacher as well as the pupils is happy. The pupils have their organization for classroom management. They make their own regulations and enforce them. Their meetings are often conducted in the absence of the teacher. Every fine assessed is by popular vote. The majority rules. The offenders plead their own cases before the class and usually plead guilty. Sometimes, the class will vote them not guilty even when they have plead guilty. I have witnessed some of their meetings in which every pupil in the class had a part in some way besides voting. Strict parliamentary procedure is observed.

Here are some remarks which the teacher of the class recently made to me concerning democracy in the classroom:

1. "Be suave in your procedure."
2. "Sell classes on the idea that it's *their* responsibility to maintain order."
3. "Prove by your actions that you don't hold grudges—one act is worth a thousand words."
4. "Let the students prove their ability to run things, thus developing in them both confidence and ability."
5. "Spend much time convincing students who do not co-operate; it affords opportunity to know the student."
6. "The teacher should absent himself from business sessions unless invited to attend."
7. "Students may have difficulties, but they must learn to emerge from the troubles their own actions have brought upon them."
8. "The teacher must not fear the class will take over; the class will want to do the right thing."
9. "The teacher must prove by his attitude and his actions that democracy is not just for the teacher."
10. "The teacher must be efficient and dynamic. No one in lethargy can inspire and lead young people who are active and alert."
11. "Learn how to apologize to students so that they may know you are sincere."
12. "Make an effort to commend students who overcome unsocial practices."
13. "Plan the instructional program in a manner that will command respect from the students, while at the same time it shows respect."

STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

The speaker believes only to a very limited degree in the possibilities of student participation in school control, especially where pupils exercise executive and judicial functions. Probably the belief is based upon failures which he has experienced, whereas success might have attended the project under the leadership of another. Only by experience can principals and teachers learn in what capacities they can do their best work. For me, the Student Council functions best in the capacity of advisory council, service club, and sponsor of attitude campaigns. Whatever the functions of the Council may be, if it is democratically constituted and operated, it does much to break down feelings of authoritarianism and remove barriers between teachers and students.

Student participation in school control sometimes takes on the form of an honor system. In the school where I am principal, an experiment is under way called the Honor System. It has been in effect for this, the fifth year. It is a project of the Student Council and is operated by the Council through a steering committee composed of students and faculty representatives elected at large by the student body. The prime purpose back of the system is to develop better pupil-teacher relations. It grew out of an extended study by pupils and teachers of How to Improve Teacher-Pupil Relations. Other objectives which the system set for itself were: 1. To develop strength and character in pupils through the exercise of self-discipline; 2. To encourage democratic practices in the school; 3. To encourage and promote a finer school spirit and school loyalty; 4. To develop and maintain a high pupil-teacher morale and a general state of happiness.

The honor system is founded upon the theory that for each privilege or opportunity which people enjoy, there is a corresponding and equal obligation or responsibility to be met. It is further based upon the principle of voluntary obedience to regulations obtained through persuasion, school spirit, and loyalty. Under the honor system, pupils are taught the value of freedom and how one may earn and deserve freedom in a democracy. Much progress has been made by way of convincing pupils that they can not have freedom except through voluntary obedience to necessary regulations. For example, if the pupils enjoy the freedom from placing locks on lockers, one prowling pupil may deprive all of the benefit of this freedom. If a pupil wishes to enjoy the freedom from teacher supervision in the cafeteria, he must not violate the law. Freedom without responsibility is the type wherein I may rob you and you may rob me. This is anarchy. Freedom comes only within the limits of the law. We have been quite successful in showing pupils that laws are necessary to show us the right way.

Under the honor system, pupils and teachers have enjoyed many freedoms. At different times, the honor system has provided such liberties, privileges, or release from faculty supervision as:

1. Leaving locks off lockers.
2. The free period before 8:15.
3. The free periods at Activity Period.
4. The absence of teachers as policemen at passing time between classes.
5. Going to lunch without teacher escort.
6. The absence of teacher supervision in cafeteria.
7. The absence of student and teacher hall patrols at lunch periods.
8. The privilege of attending pep rallies or not.
9. To sit where one wishes at pep rallies and pay programs.
10. To go anywhere for lunch. Many schools require pupils to remain on the campus.
11. To receive one's school paper on his honor.
12. Optional payment of admission to pay programs.
13. To remain in the building after dismissal.
14. To attend dances at free periods.
15. To smoke off the campus.
16. The absence of teacher patrols on the grounds at lunch periods.
17. Co-operative organization and effort to abolish cheating on school work.

THE PUPIL ACTIVITIES PROGRAM

Perhaps nowhere in the school is there so much opportunity for the promotion of fellowship between teacher and student as through the activities program. While teachers serve as sponsors of pupils activities, they are generally not regarded in the usual capacity of teacher, but more as advisers. There is a tendency for the greater practice of democracy in the clubs, especially, than in usual classroom situations. The social and fraternal elements are found to greater degree in the less formal functions of clubs and other pupil activities. The fact that teachers, generally, are working overtime and usually on a voluntary basis while sponsoring these activities, lends credence to the student in the sincerity of the teacher's interest in the student. Students are inclined to measure the interest which teachers purport to have in them by their willingness to go the extra mile with no added pay. It is through participation in the activities of the school that students most easily develop school spirit and school loyalty. These qualities serve well to promote co-operation between teachers and pupils.

THE WORK ATTITUDE

School spirit that does not recognize the part which work has in the total school program is founded upon a hollow foundation stone that will not stand the test of time. It must be impressed upon students, despite the glamor and ballyhoo accompanying the pupil activities, that the principle objectives of the school can best be realized through the activities of the classroom. It must be emphasized that the activities outside the classroom are only laboratories for the practical exercise of the principles learned within the classroom. The word "work," in the opinion of the speaker, has within the last half century been raised to a position of decency and respect in America. Students

enrolled in the D. E. and D. O. programs are quite proud of the jobs they hold. In the secondary school of today, the term *work* should be respected, dignified, and even glorified. It can be shown to be responsible for all worth-while achievement, both in and out of school. If the work attitude prevails in the classroom, all other problems are substantially, if not automatically, solved.

THE PUBLIC RELATIONS PROGRAM

The public relations program may be ever so highly organized, intricate, and well executed, but the plain fact remains that public relations originate in the classroom, and so far as good public relations are concerned, they do not exist unless they do originate there. If somewhere in the school system there exist policies and practices which alienate public support of the schools, and a constant talking down of them, there is little hope that teacher-student relations in the school can be maintained at a satisfactory level. Such a situation composes an unfortunate barrier against which teachers may seem to knock their heads in vain, but determined and persistent effort in the classroom resulting in wholesome teacher-student relations will eventually overcome opposition.

WORKING CONDITIONS AND TEACHER MORALE

There is probably, or is it probable, no greater obstacle to the promotion of better teacher-student relations than poor teacher morale. According to some authorities, at no time in the history of secondary education in America have the working conditions of teachers been poorer. As for pupil load, the situation is well described by the little girl who said, "I belong to the third shift, third floor, and second layer." Thirty-five to forty students in the classroom are not uncommon. Teachers do well who manage to recognize unfamiliar names on class rolls, much less learn to know their pupils, understand them, and provide for their differing needs through individuality in assignments and instruction. Where such conditions exist, where there is a lack of confidence that such conditions will be corrected, and where other conditions too numerous to name work to produce in teachers all forms of frustrations, the morale of teachers will hit bottom. However good or bad working conditions may be for teachers, the morale of the classroom cannot rise above that of the teacher. Administrators engaged in the improvement of teacher-student relations will give first priority to the task of building up within their teachers a high morale. The teacher with low morale is just as sick at heart as he may ever be at head from whatever physical ailment, and with even more damaging effect to his efficiency as a teacher.

THE SOCIAL PROGRAM OF THE SCHOOL

There are numerous opportunities in the field of social recreation for the school to endear itself to certain groups of students. Contacts

made by pupils with teachers while attending games, parties, dances, skating parties, and the like are usually on a congenial and friendly level and contribute much to break down unnatural and undesirable barriers, once considered natural, between pupils and teachers.

LIST OF CHARACTERISTICS SELECTED BY STUDENTS AND TEACHERS AS MUTUALLY DESIRABLE

There are many desirable characteristics which pupils like to see in teachers. Likewise, there are characteristics which teachers value most highly in the students. Surveys which the speaker has made on several occasions, involving many pupils, show, about in the order of their importance, the following characteristics to be most desirable:

Teacher Characteristics

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Friendliness | 7. Democratic practices characterized by co-operative working relations |
| 2. Sympathetic understanding | 8. Systematic planning, organization and presentation of subject-matter |
| 3. Fairness | 9. High morale including enthusiasm and optimism |
| 4. Unselfish interest in others | 10. Ability to adapt teaching to the individual levels of pupils |
| 5. A good sense of humor | |
| 6. Judgment, tact, and common sense | |

Student Characteristics

- | | |
|---|------------------------------|
| 1. Friendliness | 6. Courtesy and good manners |
| 2. Dependability | 7. Good sportsmanship |
| 3. The work attitude—seriousness of purpose | 8. Modesty |
| 4. The co-operative or partnership attitude | 9. Worthy ambition |
| 5. Gratitude and appreciation | 10. Initiative |

ORIGINAL STATEMENTS ON THE SUBJECT BY TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

Below are quotations selected from notes from students and teachers on the subject of teacher-student relationships.

From Students

1. Group interest results in united effort.
2. Maturity, self-confidence, and all the desirable character traits are gained by pupils from participating experience and not from listening to someone talk about them.
3. The honor system makes it so that both the student and teacher feel at ease, thus making the teacher more of a friend than a policeman.
4. Teachers should be interested in the life of pupils outside of the school.
5. Students should have a work attitude when they come to school.
6. The activities program should not be the only reason for going to school.... Learning can be fun if presented in an interesting way.
7. When the students can participate in school management, they get the feeling that they are really wanted and are capable of something besides study.
8. The students of A. H. S. should realize that they are a group of the luckiest kids on earth and should, therefore, come with the attitude to learn.

9. Students must respect the authority vested in teachers, and teachers must recognize that pupils are human and deserving of respect, also.
10. When I enter the classroom, I like to have a feeling of expectancy as if something startling were about to be revealed.
11. Pupils should extend themselves to understand the teacher's personality, habits, and idiosyncracies. In return, the teacher should show friendship, interest, and a will to relay her knowledge on to the student.
12. The teacher's attitude toward her pupils is going to be the main factor in determining whether the pupils are going to enjoy the course and do good work.
13. The first and most important factor to good classroom relations, in my opinion, is for the students to remember that, regardless of the course, the teacher represents authority in the classroom. Many students take cover under such phrases as 'democracy in the classroom.'
14. I think the ideal classroom would be when the teacher and the pupils are good sports. I don't mean that the teacher should act like a high school kid, but neither should she act like a grandmother of the Victorian days, even if she is.
15. Most teachers here at high school act not only in the capacity of teacher but also as a counselor and friend.
16. One of my favorite hates is a surly pupil and a complaining teacher.
17. Good relations in a classroom between teacher and pupil should be like a marriage—on the fifty-fifty plan; the pupil and teacher should meet each other half way.
18. Pupils should feel free to express their ideas without fear of ridicule or embarrassment from the other pupils or the teacher.
19. You can always tell a popular teacher because of her friendly attitude.
20. The pupils as a whole should start the year with a fair mind and try their best to like the teachers. They shouldn't decide from the first not to like certain teachers because their friends didn't from the year before.
21. Teacher-student relationship is very much better if pupils and teachers have an over-all picture of the total school program and of school management.
22. Pupils should be allowed to take over classes often enough that they may develop a sense of the responsibility involved.
23. If pupils help plan the work of the class, they are usually willing to take part and work to carry out the plan.
24. One of the things we like to see in the classroom is an atmosphere of friendliness. By being friendly, I don't mean being too lenient. We don't like to be allowed to get away with too much. We like a teacher to be very thorough in her teaching. We also like a teacher to be honest with us—not talk to us one way and about us another.
25. The ideal teacher, first and most important, directs her creative urge in teaching toward making her particular subject more interesting *to the pupils and not to herself*. She finds ways to present her subject in an interesting and yet a conclusive, absorbable manner.

From Teachers

1. One of the greatest assets to good pupil-teacher relationships is an understanding attitude on the part of the teacher. The teacher must be able to see situations from the pupil's viewpoint.
2. Teachers should treat high-school pupils as adults.
3. I believe that the faculty needs more appreciation of the background the child has for learning.

4. I think pupil-teacher relationship could be greatly improved through the elimination of after-school work as much as possible... Try the eight-hour work day for pupils and teachers.
5. Pupil-teacher relationships in our Senior High School are at a high level chiefly because of our honor system which relieves teachers from police duty in the halls, cafeteria, and classrooms and puts students on their honor to conduct themselves as they know they should, at all times. Our general visitation program has encouraged home visits and has also done much to establish good relationships.
6. Through the use of democracy in the classroom, in my opinion, more students abandon tensions and become natural in the school environment than under rigid control exercised by the teacher. When a student convinces himself that he is accepted in a group on the basis of his performance there, he rarely maintains an antagonistic attitude permanently in the classroom. The basic problem in the student-teacher relationship, as I see it, resolves into a willingness on the part of the instructor to understand and deal sympathetically with pupil behavior to the extent that he can aid, lead, and counsel the student to recognize and develop his basic aptitudes and desirable personality traits progressively in the extracurricular program and in the classroom situation. Ideally co-operative attitudes on the part of the teacher and the student should result in thorough development of the student's attitudes, abilities, and personality.

Group VIII (Wednesday)—TOPIC: The Contribution of Parent-Teacher Associations to Secondary Education.

CHAIRMAN: *Mrs. Walter H. Beckham*, Vice President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Miami, Florida

INTERROGATORS:

Leo Frederick, Principal, Wells High School, Chicago, Illinois

Mrs. Lorin C. Staats, President, Ohio Congress of Parents and Teachers, Athens, Ohio

William Nault, Principal, W. K. Kellogg School, Battle Creek, Michigan

THE CONTRIBUTION OF PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS TO SECONDARY EDUCATION

MRS. EDWARD N. HOWELL

THIS is the third consecutive year I have been privileged to attend the annual convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and to participate in these discussion groups in the inter-

Mrs. Edward N. Howell is Chairman of the Committee on High-School Service of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Swannanoa, North Carolina.

ests of the high-school service program of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. In February 1950, the topic under consideration was, "What Is the Professional Opportunity of Secondary-School Principals for Leadership in Parent-Teacher Education?" In 1951 the topic was, "Teacher-Student-Parent Co-operation in Secondary Schools." Today's topic follows in good order: "The Contribution of Parent-Teacher Associations to Secondary Education." Dr. E. T. McSwain, Dean of the University College, Northwestern University, and Director of the joint project of the university's School of Education and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, a three-week workshop in parent-teacher leadership, made a statement in his presentation of the issue before the 1950 group that has a direct bearing on the topic for to-day. With your permission, I shall use his words as an introduction: "The contribution that a parent-teacher association is making to the high-school program depends in part on the principal's interpretation of its educational value and on the leadership that he gives in adapting the program to the needs of the school. The principal and the faculty should be as well informed about the objects, principles, and enabling practices of the PTA as they are about the purposes, materials, and methods of the school curriculum. Leadership in parent-teacher education is an important function of the administrator and the faculty of a high school."

I would not minimize in the least, the importance of the statement made by Dr. McSwain, but would add that, being an organization of six and one-half million members distributed among more than thirty-six thousand local associations, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, as well as all of its state branches, assumes its proper share of responsibility for guidance and leadership training. They do so, maintaining always a fine balance between professional and lay counsel in the fields of education, citizenship, family relations, health, recreation, safety, character development and spiritual values. They keep in close contact with other organizations and agencies which deal with these areas of concern. It is with the knowledge that the needs of children and youth cannot be met by one group alone, or even a few, that the PTA welcomes the opportunity to work with others locally as well as on a state-wide and nation-wide basis. For instance: an all-day conference called by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers met in Chicago in November to consider the problems involved in narcotics traffic. Twenty-five organizations were represented. Welfare associations, youth-serving agencies, church groups, and government agencies were among them. A full report of the conference begins in the January issue and will continue in the February issue of the *National Parent-Teacher*. Information from the conference will go to every parent-teacher association, perhaps in many different aspects. The influence of the school personnel is very great in the PTA, not

only because of official position, but because of those personal relationships which exist between the professional and the lay members of one working group, its goal set and its progress, maybe a little slow at times, but always in the direction of the welfare of *all* children and youth.

Lay and professional leadership appear to be in agreement on the following:

1. Boys and girls of high-school age are receiving their education from community contacts outside the home and the school as well as from teachers and parents.
2. There may not be complete unity, but there must be some degree of understanding among parents, teachers, and students; especially where objectives and standards of attainment are concerned, if best results are obtained.
3. Only through conscious effort on the part of all three, can the school, the home, and the community bring into harmony the three-way teaching program which is bound to continue one way or another, and probably to the detriment of many boys and girls if no effort is made.

Records of PTA achievements are to be found in the files of their state and national headquarters, and in state and national files of departments of education and of educational organizations. Their activities and influence have been widely known for many years in the halls of Congress and in state legislatures, and in local communities where school bond issues and tax levying questions have been decided. In fact, wherever the needs of children and youth call for study and action, the PTA is always ready.

Because I know that you are interested in the specific, I have selected items which are representative parent-teacher activities throughout the country and will group them according to areas of interest which are common to both the secondary education program and to parent-teacher endeavor. These have been reported to me by the state chairmen of high-school service across the nation. I shall ask you, as I enumerate these activities, to classify and identify them with your own concept of the aims of secondary education, and to evaluate their contributions.

THE SCHOOL

A number of PTA's have used Life Adjustment Education as a study course. Surveys of job and occupational opportunities have been sponsored by PTA's using student-adult committees. Vocational guidance conferences and conferences on choosing a college have been joint projects of PTA and faculty. Discussion groups have been held on sorority and fraternity questions in which parents, students, and teachers have participated. The professional baseball situation has been of great concern to some; the general question of high-school athletics is a matter of concern and the subject of a number of group discussions. Chaperones are often provided for out-of-town trips to

games, contests, and other field trips; sometimes it is necessary for the PTA to provide transportation for such trips. School, class, and club parties are often chaperoned, and sometimes other assistance is provided. PTA members, both men and women, have appeared on school or class programs or in discussions where their particular qualifications fitted them. Men members have been active in the sports program of the high school and community and have contributed labor to many projects which could not otherwise be provided. Many departments of the high school have been most effectively interpreted to the parents in PTA programs, often through participation of students and faculty. Students have served on many PTA executive committees and on activity and program committees in line with their common interests. PTA's still find it necessary at some times to provide some bit of essential equipment, but more and more they report: "We find need for many things, but we have been able to persuade our school committee or board to provide them." A number of state chairmen of high-school service report excellent relationships with the state association of secondary-school principals; one says she is an associate member.

THE HOME

There are many reports of parents and teachers together in groups studying the home, school, and social problems of the adolescent. In one high school, mothers come every Monday morning to the school for a group discussion on this subject. Each Monday two or more high-school teachers are released to meet with them. They report excellent understandings, and the principal and dean wouldn't miss a session. In some areas, the high-school program of family life education and the PTA study program culminate each spring in a Family Life Institute. Outstanding speakers to key-note and to handle general sessions, smaller group discussions on topics of special interest (parents usually group themselves around their interests in special age groups of children). High-school students have one day and the adults the next. States report parent education leadership training programs as a follow-up of the regional workshops which the National Congress held in its expanded parent education program. Students in child care classes often operate a nursery during the time of PTA meetings.

THE COMMUNITY

In one state a study patterned after the Montana Study is reported with parent-teacher-student participation. In others, there are series of discussion groups on social problems. Codes of behaviour have been found more satisfactory when worked out co-operatively. Father-son and father-daughter agreements in the driver-training program are quite popular and offer opportunities for programs and discussions. Numerous local and state follow-up conferences were held on such topics,

and on the recommendations of the White House Conference, particularly the "Pledge to Children." Many programs and projects in the interest of United Nations and UNESCO are held. Community surveys of opportunities in business, industry, and the professions, of youth serving agencies, and of recreational facilities have been conducted. PTA's have sponsored American Education Week programs in every community through all the local clubs and organizations that could use them. Practically all reports contain accounts of social events such as community mixers, family night parties, teas and parties for teachers, picnics and games with parent and teacher participation, often in contest form, and some neighborhood groups for fun and study with one or more teachers taking part. The PTA has been a great help to the school as it has so often been used as a channel through which to contact people of the community for various reasons. The PTA gives evidence of the very real pride which the community has in its school and its fine record of service to the youth and the community at large.

Group IX (Wednesday)—TOPIC: How Can Spiritual Values Be Included in the Secondary-School Program?

CHAIRMAN: *Glenn H. Lewis*, Principal, Fullerton Union High School, Fullerton, California

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Paul F. Davis, Principal, Manatee County High School, Bradenton, Florida

Alan Shankland, Principal, Willoughby Union High School, Willoughby, Ohio

HOW CAN SPIRITUAL VALUES BE INCLUDED IN THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PROGRAM?

RAY BLACK

A YEAR AGO the faculty at my school, in preparing a statement of philosophy as a part of our self study in applying the Evaluative Criteria, submitted the following sentences to the visiting committee: "It is our belief that religious teaching should be the basis of all other teaching. It should be taught both directly and indirectly." About the same time the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association issued a bulletin entitled "Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools" in which it stated, "The development of moral and spiritual values is basic to all other educational objectives."

Ray Black is Principal of the Sheffield High School, Sheffield, Alabama.

SPIRITUAL NEEDS

Whenever we consider in a logical and mature manner the problem of determining the primary and fundamental needs of man, I am convinced that we must begin with his spiritual needs. If this be true, the teaching of spiritual values must certainly be the school's first responsibility to its children.

I believe this notion is inferred in the title assigned to this paper. Our task is no longer concerned with whether such teaching ought to be done, but with how it may be done.

Some difficulties must be overcome in devising a plan of public instruction that gives so great an emphasis to spiritual values. Perhaps the first step should be an effort to arrive at an acceptable definition of the term spiritual. It needs only to be mentioned here that the word may mean quite a number of things to any number of people. No solution of the problem of semantics is intended here. It seems necessary, however, to establish some kind of a definition so that any discussion of the matter may have a mooring. For the purpose of this discourse I should like to submit that spiritual values are those sensibilities of the human personality derived from and persisting in our worshipful relationship with God and our love and compassion for our fellowman. Truth, beauty of form, rhythm, and expression, honor, courage, and strength of heart and body and mind seem to be all the more majestic when considered as part of that affinity existing between God, His creatures, and His creation. We must not be satisfied with ethics alone. The laws of human rights are not enough. Compliance with a sense of justice is inadequate. Tolerance, respect of property rights, and group approval are but steps in the direction of man's ultimate spiritual depths. Contemplation of character as consisting of one's own qualities of virtue is a Pharisaical delusion. These may be high-sounding phrases, but we are dealing with high thoughts and we must be content with nothing less than our farthest reaches of heart and mind. A child must be given something to believe and to believe in as well as something to know and to know about. We have no right to leave him disillusioned, skeptical, and agnostic. We must help to provide him with faith and conviction, or how else can we say the sheep have been fed?

RELIGION AND EDUCATION

Very soon as we pursue this kind of thinking we arrive at the term religion. This is a subject both delicate and anxious. In our country we are historically inclined to look upon religion as an opportunity for political aggrandizement and have therefore exerted every precaution against its being so used. The First Amendment took government out of religion, but it did not necessarily take religion out of government. Our nation was founded on a belief in God. From the Mayflower Com-

pact to the Gettysburg Address we have consistently reaffirmed the notion that this nation must never disavow that conviction.

It seems clear that it is right that our government should maintain a neutrality between the various disciplines, but neutrality between all faiths and agnosticism or atheism is neither circumspect nor right. The Northwest Ordinance, in 1871, under the impulse of religious conviction, stated that, "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

Perhaps our great differences after all are not whether we shall teach religion but whether we shall teach some special kind of religion. That we have not yet solved the problem of how religion may be included in the curriculum without permitting the establishment of a particular form of religion is not a good reason for its neglect or deliberate omission. Public instruction should include instruction in all experiences common to and for the good of the public. Unless the public is secular, public education should not be secular. Our culture is incomplete at any point where there is a separation of spiritual values from social, ethical, emotional, and intellectual values.

Just as the success of any other phase of our instruction, regardless of the curriculum, the course of study, or the materials of instruction, must rest within the ability and energy of the individual teacher, so must the job of teaching moral and spiritual values be the responsibility largely of those who are in closest communication with the pupils. Statements of philosophy and points of views, slogans, mottoes, and copybook axioms cannot be relied upon to guarantee that children will successfully be enabled to choose between what they ought to do and what they ought not to do. We shall always need the kind of teaching that helps our pupils come to an acceptable understanding of what is right and what is wrong, but we shall also need the Samaritan-like demonstration of the choice to be made. The teacher must do more than agree; she must perform, she must profess, and she must deal ever so gently with her charges that they shall regard her as a friend as well as an example. She must not only do good, but she must also teach her pupils to do good. Children do not learn by watching the expert set the pattern; they must be taught to participate before they can become proficient. The next approach, therefore, to better teaching of moral and spiritual values must begin with the selection of teachers with the ability and willingness to do that kind of teaching. This step might best be taken in the screening processes of our teacher-training institutions.

With the determination of what we mean by moral and spiritual values and the selection of teachers with both the conviction and the capacity to teach such values, the next move should be that of establishing some kind of policy of how it shall be done. This kind of teaching can never hope to be reduced to academic formulas and exact specificities such as we have in some of our other refinements of

instruction. It does seem likely, however, that a working arrangement of some kind may be set up for the purpose of improving our teaching of moral and spiritual values. The application of good democratic procedure promises us our only hope in agreeing on a point of departure. Here the authority absolutely must reside in the group that will be affected—pupils, teachers, school administration, parents, and community. I believe it is entirely possible for boys and girls and men and women representing both the school and the community to sit down around the discussion table and, with a sincere desire and the courage and freedom to express themselves honestly, arrive at a decision on how spiritual and moral values can and should be taught in the classroom. This kind of face-to-face practice of democracy wherein the first consideration is the opportunity and responsibility to contribute to a final agreement, rather than the disposition to debate and defend the points of disagreement, can and does produce desirable results. To the school teacher this means the double-barreled use of our best techniques of democratic administration and public relations. The teaching of any subject, particularly one involving the nature of an issue, must be done with the full approval and sanction of those who are taught and those for whom we teach.

MORAL AND SPIRITUAL VALUES IN THE CURRICULUM

A great many devices have been proposed and tried in our efforts to meet the demand for what seems to be a conscientious need for a greater spiritual emphasis in our teaching. Daily capsuled lessons in character education achieved wide popularity a generation ago. Apparently that kind of teaching has not yet produced satisfying results. Investigations of the manner in which learning takes place have demonstrated that values appear to be developed out of the wholeness of our experiences rather than through specially organized courses.

It is probably not within our professional power so far to determine when, how, and if the expected learning results from any specific method of teaching values. This may be due to our lack of knowledge in constructing instruments with which we may satisfactorily measure the results of our teaching, or it may be due to the possibility that results are often delayed and do not show up until years later. Values, like seeds of grain, often do not come to fruition unless nurtured by sincerity, kindness, confidence, and faith—characteristics which distinguish the relationship between the good teacher and the willing pupil.

To many of us it seems that the mechanics of teaching moral and spiritual values are already present in our curriculum. We need only to be reassured that such values will be recognized as even more important results of our instruction than civic responsibility, preparation for home and family life, the development of skills, attitudes and habits of

mental, emotional, and physical health, and the qualification of students for further education. Indeed the teaching of moral and spiritual values should permeate the whole of our educational efforts. The teacher must not only be ready and prepared to do that kind of teaching but she must also be given the freedom to do it. The teaching of values must depend on the spiritual culture of the community wherein the teaching takes place.

A good place to begin is with the regularly organized studies and activities of the school. Although we have heard it argued that there is a great disparagement of religion in the teaching of the physical sciences, it is difficult to understand how this subject can properly be taught without reference to the Source of the laws that govern it. There is a feeling that science lacks a reconciliation with religion. This, I believe, is due to our failure to understand both as well as we ought and as well as we might. We shall need to understand what it is that science and the book of Genesis are trying to tell us. One helps us to understand how the world was made and the other teaches us by Whom and for what purpose it was made. If we are able to teach our pupils the laws of nature, we can also teach them the origin of these laws and the reason for their existence.

Because so much of our great literature deals with the courage, loyalty, and self-sacrifice of those who are strong, and the dishonesty, deceit, and avarice of those who are weak, we ought to find in that subject an immediate opportunity to teach values. Good literature does not necessarily need to be didactically labeled with tags saying, "This should teach you to do right," but the good teacher who is sensitive to values will not leave the pupil neutral or with a feeling of futility and confusion concerning human relationships. Good poetry is good only if we feel it and are able to associate ourselves with it. Here we are dealing with values that offer a fertile field for the teaching of that which is good in personal and community behavior. "The Pied Piper of Hamelin" is not only a story of the sorrow of a community of people, but it is also a story of their trickery and fraudulence.

The history of our country began with the struggle for the right to pursue the ideals of spiritual tolerance and forbearance. Through devotion to the idea that the greatness of a people lies in their faith, our world community has set an example for all mankind. By contrast the teacher of social science can point out the results of the vanity and cruelty of those whose early explorations of the new world were prompted by greed and an inordinate desire for personal power. So also can it be noted that the moral fullness of our national life today must depend on our willingness and capacity to reclaim and sustain a community kinship marked by confidence and faith in human worth and the ultimate end-values of the lives of all men.

Many schools are using the assembly period as an occasion to develop such values as responsibility, willingness to be of service to

others, co-operative group behavior, and an esteem for beauty of expression in music, drama, and speech.

Athletic activities offer an opportunity for teaching honesty, a sense of fairness, and the ability to forego one's personal aspirations in favor of the welfare of the group. In many instances sports are the only direct contact between the school and the community. The advantages as well as the disadvantages of this activity in providing the pupil with values that can be carried over into adult life are many. The fullest moral, emotional, and physical development of all the children should be the aim of any program of athletics if it is rightfully to claim a place in the curriculum of our schools.

The ability to get along with others and the acceptance of one's responsibility to contribute to the needs of the group are two of the most important characteristics of the well-balanced personality. Highly important also is the development of qualities of leadership and individual worthiness. The homeroom is a very excellent vehicle for the practice of these attributes. Other special activities promoted by clubs and hobby groups give the pupils opportunities for furthering growth through creativity and through acquiring a fuller sense of the appreciation of aesthetic values.

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The community offers resources for the teaching of moral and spiritual values. Scout organizations, Hi-Y groups, and recreation centers should receive the fullest co-operation of the schools. The membership in these groups is usually composed of school children, and in many cases their leaders are school teachers.

There are some precautions that must be taken in our teaching principles of right and wrong. No matter how zealous we may be or how sincere our efforts and purpose, we must avoid any excess of sentimentality. We need not feel the necessity to stop and moralize or draw a lesson on the final triumph of virtue or the futility of our transgressions out of every assembly or every class meeting. The intelligent teacher will recognize the proper time and the proper place for bringing the matter of values into the discussion, and even then she will avoid the use of preachment and pious phraseology. The successful teacher will help the pupil to make the right selection of ideals and values; she will not authoritatively impose them on the learner nor will she employ peremptory quotations that have the effect of bringing discussion to a dead-end.

THE CHALLENGE

The narrow road to a still brighter world lies always ahead. Over all the earth there are great wastelands of spiritual drouth and moral atrophy. The exploration of new worlds of power and greatness must

turn now to the hearts and minds of men. The resolution and strength of soul required for today's new journey in search of peace and brotherhood and faith will be even greater than that demanded in 1620. There are barriers of pride and predilection. There are vast deeps of vested interests, complacency, and cajolery. Perhaps the kind of people needed for a confirmation of the validity of moral and spiritual values in leading us to a happier world can be found in the classrooms of America.

HOW CAN MORAL AND SPIRITUAL VALUES BE INCLUDED IN THE SECONDARY- SCHOOL PROGRAM?

HENRY C. JENSEN

THE DANGER to America today is not from a lack of arithmetic. In words similar to these Willard Goslin recently indicated to a group of teachers the need for education to lift its sights from matters relatively trivial to matters profoundly significant. In a day when the cry is for a return to the fundamentals we may well ask what indeed is fundamental. Schools always have been and should continue to be interested in teaching young people to add and spell effectively. Most of us feel, however, that there are no more important objectives within the potential scope of our curriculum than those we have come, sometimes a little vaguely, to call moral and spiritual values.

The abstractions "moral" and "spiritual" need a brief word of definition if we are to think on them with any degree of common understanding. The Educational Policies Commission, in its report, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*, defines these values as "those... which, when applied in human behavior, exalt and refine life and bring it into accord with the standards of conduct that we approve in our democratic culture."¹ More specifically, moral values are seen as those having consequences chiefly in social relationships, and spiritual values as those which take effect mainly in terms of inner emotions and sentiments. While these are excellent working definitions, we need to avoid the possible inference that the two are dichotomous. The individual's social relationships play a vital role in shaping his inner emotions and sentiments, and these inner feelings, likewise, affect the individual's dealings with his fellows.

¹Norton, John K., and others, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*, Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C., 1931, p. 3.

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We delude ourselves if we assume that our present concern over these values is at all new in American education. Bibliographies on the subject are replete with titles dated before the turn of the century and during the first quarter of this century. Some of us may be surprised at the clarity with which some of our professional predecessors viewed the problem. In 1917, Henry Neumann wrote as follows in a Bureau of Education bulletin called *Moral Values in Secondary Education*:

To consider moral values in education is to fix attention upon what should be the paramount aim. A schooling that imparts knowledge or develops skills or cultivates tastes or intellectual aptitudes, fails of its supreme object if it leaves its beneficiaries no better morally. In all their relationships present and future, that is, as school mates, friends, as members of a family, as workers in their special vocations, as Americans, as world citizens, the greatest need of our boys and girls is character, the habitual disposition to choose those modes of behavior that most do honor to human rights, but to realize in ever more vital ways that the worth of life consists in the endeavor to live out in every sphere of conduct the noblest of which one is capable—that it is which gives education its highest meaning.³

Somehow these ideas seem amazingly appropriate to the planning of an educational program in 1952.

No useful purpose would be served here by a detailed tracing of the historic interest of educators in values above the level of creature comfort. It is important, nonetheless, for us to recognize that interest in moral and spiritual values is not a novel but a persistent and historic concern of persons who have thought deeply about the essential functions of the public school in American life. This concern has been heightened recently by two developments on the American scene, the one somewhat superficial, the other immensely more significant.

The first development, the one I have chosen to call somewhat superficial, is the publicity which has been given in recent months to such affairs as the RFC scandals, basketball fixes, and the skullduggery in the Department of Internal Revenue. In referring to these affairs as superficial in no way do I wish to indicate that they are unimportant or unworthy of concern by educators. I call them such because they are symptomatic and because they are not novel. Any reputable high-school textbook in American history records other scandals equally salty and equally derogatory to the best in our heritage.

Such affairs are symptoms of a soft philosophy whose motto is, "Anything is OK if you can get away with it." This sort of thinking is by no means confined to Washington or to the fringes of Madison Square Garden. We have all seen evidences of it, in varying degrees, in our own communities, in our own schools, and perhaps in our own lives. Such affairs lose their superficiality when we recognize that they indicate a lack of integrity among rather large numbers of individuals. The development of individual integrity is the task about

³Neumann, Harry, *Moral Values in Secondary Education*, Bulletin No. 51, 1917, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., 1917, p. 7.

which the administrator in his school and the teacher in his classroom should be concerned.

DEFINITION

Integrity does not exist in isolation. It exists in relation to values. In a democracy we have come, theoretically at least, to believe in certain values which we describe as essentially moral and spiritual. Each of us could make a list of such values and we could all agree on most of them. For purposes of this discussion the values suggested by the Educational Policies Commission are adequate, because they are inclusive, well-formulated, and broad enough to merit the support of those of us who are devoted to that elusive abstraction we call the American way of life. In review, these values are as follows: human personality—the basic value; moral responsibility; institutions as the servants of men; common consent; devotion to truth; respect for excellence; moral equality; brotherhood; the pursuit of happiness; and spiritual enrichment.³ A list of similar scope was suggested in 1944 by the authors of the John Dewey Society's Seventh Yearbook, *The Public Schools and Spiritual Values*. The values enumerated here are respect for personality, increasing control over one's own destiny, loyalty to democratic group life, aesthetic sensitivities and enjoyments, and moral fiber.⁴ These lists are challenging; the task of teaching such values to our nation's youth is more so.

RESPONSIBILITY OF SCHOOL

The imperative for teaching them arises out of the second and more significant development on the American scene. The events of the past few decades have thrown our nation into a position of prominence and of potential leadership in global affairs. Approximately one third of the world's peoples are devoted, in varying degrees, to a democratic point of view; one third are devoted to, or at least controlled by, a totalitarian point of view; and the remaining one third are undecided. The ultimate decision of this third group will be a measure of the extent to which our leadership potential is realized. The nature of this potential is moral and spiritual rather than material.

Only the perspective of history will one day prove whether or not these broad assumptions are true. If we consider them so, for the present at least, it would appear that the job of the American public school is to save civilization! We flatter ourselves if we think that we in education alone are elected by fate to accomplish this task. We need to consider our limitations. We must remember that the public school is only one of many forces which mold our youth, and that often

³Norton, John K., and others, *op. cit.*, pp. 17-30.

⁴Brubacher, John S., (ed.), *The Public Schools and Spiritual Values*, Seventh Yearbook of the John Dewey Society, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1944, pp. 124-128.

some of the other forces do not operate in the same direction as does the school. It may help us to attain a proper humility in the face of our task to recognize that the eighteen year old youth who has attended school for twelve and one-half years has spent something like one eighth of his waking hours under the direct supervision of the school, about half of this being in the secondary-school. This means that for seven eighths of his waking hours he has been subjected, for good or for ill, to the influences of the home, the neighborhood gang, the church, the movies, the radio, television, the summer camp, the Boy Scouts and the Rainbow Girls, to mention only a few. The effectiveness of these forces in developing individuals of integrity may, of course, bear no relation to the time ratio. We need to beware lest we use the time factor as an excuse for doing nothing.

Our responsibility in this discussion today would be considerably easier to discharge were it simply to elaborate on the need and desirability for moral and spiritual values in the secondary-school. It is usually easier to identify problems than to effect solutions. What can we do in the high schools of America to teach moral and spiritual values in such a way that they become living realities rather than meaningless symbols in the lives of the young?

Here again let us turn to the Educational Policies Commission report. Much of the thinking of educators and religious leaders on the subject during the past year has used this report as a point of reference. The Commission suggests nine lines of attack:

1. Moral and spiritual values should be stated as aims of the school.
2. Initiative by individual teachers should be encouraged.
3. The education of teachers should deal with moral and spiritual values.
4. The teaching of values should permeate the entire educational process.
5. All the school's resources should be used to teach moral and spiritual values.
6. Public schools need staff and facilities for wholesome personal relations.
7. Public schools should be friendly toward the religious beliefs of their students.
8. Public schools should guard religious freedom and tolerance.
9. Public schools can and should teach *about* religion.³

The public secondary-school which can put these suggestions into effective practice would be meeting its obligation to teach moral and spiritual values most commendably. Let us examine four of the more basic of these suggestions in terms of their possibilities and their limitations.

THE LEADERSHIP OF TEACHERS

If moral and spiritual values are the true fundamentals of education the school must be staffed with teachers who are in sincerity devoted to such values. This places a heavy burden of responsibility

³*Ibid.*, pp. 51-80.

upon the teacher-education institutions. No longer can we be content with the teacher who simply "knows his subject matter well." We must expect of the teacher that he view his specialty in its relation to a value system. A skill in arithmetic, for example, has no moral significance in itself. It may be used either constructively or destructively. The student, under the guidance of the teacher, must learn the constructive uses to which such a skill may be put. Learning to read rapidly may be a destructive thing if the student fails to choose and to evaluate his reading in terms of values which are not at all inherent in the skill itself.

The teacher who would teach a skill or a body of knowledge in a value setting must himself have a sense of values consistent with those upon which a democratic philosophy of life is based. It is not the teacher's wizardry at the blackboard but his inner convictions as expressed in his outward actions which affect most profoundly the lives of his students. Recognition of this fact in the professional preparation of teachers will do much toward staffing our schools with teachers who are actively conscious of the values so vital to the continued growth of our way of life.

It would be unreasonable for us to expect that the teachers colleges do the whole job. Certainly a teacher's value-consciousness should continue to develop as he learns the techniques of working with adolescents, with his fellow teachers, and with his community. Here the administrator has the responsibility of providing adequate opportunity for teacher growth through such means as individual conferences and stimulating staff and committee meetings devoted to the implementation of moral and spiritual values in the school.

Another of the Commission's suggestions is that the teaching of values should permeate the entire educational process. Values cannot be taught in the isolated sense in which certain motor skills are taught. The whole spirit and tone of the school must bear witness to the reality of these values. Schools characterized by faculty cliques, petty bickering, or administrative authoritarianism can never effectively teach brotherhood, common consent, and the dignity of the individual. The old cliché that "Some things are caught rather than taught" was never more true than in the realm of values. The tone of the school should be such that when one walks through its halls or visits its classrooms one senses that here, in this school, brotherhood is a reality, that here there is a respect for excellence and a devotion to truth, that here people feel responsible for their own acts, that here the youth of a community are pursuing happiness with some degree of success, and that in the course of their pursuit their lives are being spiritually enriched.

The values about which we are concerned have their origin, for the most part, in the great Judeo-Christian tradition which has sired Western civilization. Courses in literature, the social sciences, and

even in the physical and biological sciences offer many opportunities to help youth grasp the great ideas of this tradition. Virgil Henry, in the second chapter of his book, *The Place of Religion in the Public Schools*, offers many practical and worth-while suggestions on the inclusion of such values in a number of the subject areas.⁴

In even strictly vocational or skills type courses the wise teacher will find many opportunities to emphasize such values as moral responsibility, respect for excellence, and devotion to truth. The teaching of values is not the prerogative of teachers in certain selected subjects. It is the privilege and responsibility of every individual in the school who has contact with the student. Not to be overlooked are the important contributions which such people as the office secretary, the custodian, and the cafeteria worker make to the general moral tone of the school.

OPPORTUNITIES IN THE ACTIVITIES PROGRAM

The activities program can afford particularly rich opportunities for development of moral and spiritual values. In the average secondary school the student has a greater chance to participate in and to affect the decisions of such groups as the student council and the various hobby clubs than he does in the typical classroom. Many of us may deplore this situation, feeling that the classroom should afford as much opportunity for constructive self-expression as does the school newspaper or the speech club. Be that as it may, the fact remains that in most of our schools the activity portion of our curriculum affords more chance for direct participation by the student than does the academic portion.

Here again, intelligent direction by the teacher-sponsor is of prime importance. Certainly moral and spiritual values are involved when the journalism teacher helps the neophyte writer to express himself with sympathy and understanding of others' problems rather than with self-righteousness or vindictiveness. It is the wise athletic coach who helps his young athletes see that sportsmanship is more than a well-worn generalization and that the thrill of the well-executed play or friendly regard for the other team are ultimately of much greater significance than is the score at the end of the game. Certainly the speech coach must be concerned not merely with the delivery but with the thought-content of the young orator's verbal efforts. The same sort of attention to values applies to all the other activities typical of the American high school.

The point, in summary, is that the teaching of moral and spiritual values is not a task which can be assigned to a few teachers. The job will be done only to the degree that the tone of the school is conducive

⁴Henry, Virgil, *The Place of Religion in the Public Schools*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1950, pp. 38-68.

to the teaching of such values and that each teacher accepts his responsibility for developing devotion to such ideals in his classroom and extraclass activities.

CONTROVERSIAL ISSUE

The final suggestion of the Educational Policies Commission, and probably its most controversial one, is that the school can and should teach *about* religion. We have previously indicated that our moral and spiritual values are the outgrowth of our religious heritage. It seems logical, then, that such values cannot be taught without reference to that heritage. It is a peculiar phenomenon that while religious leaders have been most vocal in their criticism of the public school's failure to teach spiritual values, they have also expressed most serious doubt as to the possibility that the schools can teach about religion and its impact on human life in an objective manner.

Last summer an entire issue of *Religious Education*, the official publication of the Religious Education Association, was devoted to a series of fifteen evaluations of the Educational Policies Commission report so frequently referred to today. While the fifteen critics represented a wide variety of educational and religious points of view, the general tenor of their reactions to the report was favorable, except on the matter of teaching about religion. The fear was expressed, more pointedly by the religious than by the educational critics, that the job of teaching objectively about religion is well-nigh impossible, since the teacher's own bias would sooner or later creep into such teaching. We can see the basis for such fears when we consider, for example, how the interpretation of the Reformation by a teacher of strong Southern Baptist background would compare with that of a teacher whose religious convictions are strongly Roman Catholic! Yet the fact that our religious strength in America is being dissipated through the divisive effect of some 250 denominations should surely provide the incentive for the nation's one unifying institution, its public school system, to develop whatever harmony may be developed out of the conglomeration of beliefs held by this vast array of religious sects. If teachers reasonably competent to teach objectively about religion can be located the project would be worth a try, at least experimentally.

STUDENT RESOURCES

In developing a program for the teaching of moral and spiritual values in the secondary school we should not overlook one of our finest resources, that of the students themselves. Often the ideals and hopes of our young people can give us the added ounce of courage necessary to make such a program effective. These youthful hopes and aspirations have not yet had a chance to become corroded by the acids of cynicism and despair so often typical of adults who have come to take a dim view of the improbability of man and his society.

COMMUNITY CO-OPERATION

In conclusion we should mention that no program for teaching moral and spiritual values in the secondary school can be spelled out in such specifics as would make it satisfactory for any given school. Each school must develop its own program based upon a frank recognition of the political, economic and religious make-up of the community it serves and upon the staff resources at its disposal. Certainly the thinking of such groups as ministerial alliances, boards of education, and other lay groups who have expressed an interest in these values should be utilized in establishing such a program. If we rely on the great old American custom of co-operative action in the solution of a common problem we will have no reason to doubt our ability to supply our youth with the moral stamina and the spiritual insight demanded by this critical hour in the history of man.

Group XI (Wednesday)—TOPIC: How Can the Poor Reader in the Secondary School Be Rescued?

CHAIRMAN: *Clarence H. Spain*, Principal, Binford Junior High School, Richmond, Virginia

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HOW CAN THE POOR READER IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL BE RESCUED?

LEONARD E. LOOS

HOW CAN the poor reader in secondary school be *rescued*? The very wording of the question suggests dire *peril* for the poor reader— whoever he is—a plight like that of a man about to "go down for the third time!"

Since this person is in your school, and in mine, let us hope that when we go to the rescue we may find that he is in trouble only "up to his neck." Then we can expect more co-operation from him than if we should have to use artificial resuscitation entirely.

On the other hand, perhaps those who devised this program topic esteemed the poor reader to be within the *confinement* of his present limitations rather than in peril. In that case, it should seem that our

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job is to free him. How shall we go about it? Who is going to help us? With what facilities do we need to be equipped?

The problem of helping these pupils is before us as high-school principals. As such, probably we cannot get the solution, ready-made, from college professors, elementary-school teachers, or even research specialists, despite the assistance they can give us. And so, we are here this morning to exchange ideas with a view to arriving at some practical answers.

From the principal's standpoint, let us consider a few of the many questions the topic suggests:

WHO ARE THE POOR READERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL?

Some of the poor readers are the so-called slow learners. By comparison with other pupils, they may be *very* poor readers. But, judged by their own abilities, some of them may be doing quite well—even better than would be warranted by the attention given to teaching them to read since they left the middle grades.

If we should limit our discussion to the problems of slow learners we would be overlooking some of our opportunities and responsibilities as educators. For instance, some poor readers have their difficulties because of undetected or untreated disabilities of vision, speech, and hearing or because of other physical or emotional factors. Others may be the budding products of previously limited school or home-and-family opportunities. Secondary schools are under constant necessity of adjusting to pupils received from many types of elementary-school background. There are also the pupils who, as yet, just do not want to read. They are reluctant, perhaps even reluctant to be rescued; but it our job to try.

We will be safe in believing that *most* of the poor reading is not due to lack of mental ability. As much of it may soon be due to the effects of passive enjoyment of television upon reading habits of the young. But, who can say? Nevertheless, our hope for rescuing the poor reader lies in the probability that he has the intelligence to become a much better reader.

Our schools are, and must continue to be, reading schools. Such is the nature of our civilization. In spite of glowing, early claims made for movies, radio, and television, reading continues to be the prime thought-getting process for the educated person. However, one of the chief jibes hurled at our schools in a recent magazine article on the "crisis" in U. S. schools was that MOST Americans can only with "sweat and tears" read anything more advanced than a tabloid newspaper or a funny book. By judgment other than ours, there must many poor readers.

We must certainly consider as poor readers any pupils who, on reading tests, show achievement a year or more below their grade

level or mental age. But we should consider as poor readers the others, who have lazy and indifferent attitudes about reading although, when occasion demands, they can satisfactorily manipulate test symbols.

HOW MUCH HOPE IS THERE FOR THE POOR READER?

The very essence of our American faith and theory in the secondary school should call upon us to provide for every pupil the opportunities and encouragement that will enable him to achieve near his capacity with the basic tool of education.

By the time pupils are in high school, the time has passed for preventative measures. Mere "remedial" reading may be helpful, but it alone is not enough. Somehow, we principals need to lead and inspire both students and teachers in reference to the prospect of improving the palpably poor reading that causes so many school "failures." Individual cases that any of us can recall will reinforce our confidence in what *can* be done if the determination is present.

A late or slow beginning in reading is not necessarily an omen of future disability. I once knew a teacher who was meticulous (and successful) in the teaching of printing, an expert in the graphic arts. He had been granted a master's degree by a university. It was only incidentally that I found he had not begun to read until he was nine years old. I doubt that he was more than a poor reader in secondary school.

Slow beginnings have not even barred the way to a university professorship. I recall one incumbent of national renown who more or less boastfully alluded to beginning his schooling at the age of eleven. (His failing was in suggesting that not too much would be lost by general application of the practice.)

Fortunately, such cases as these afford hope for many of the boys and girls known as poor readers. Albeit, much of the hope lies in the fact that growth and interest may cure their ills. This is more likely to occur if and when friendly encouragement is received. We principals are in a strategic position to foster such encouragement.

HOW CAN TEACHERS HELP US TO RESCUE THE POOR READER?

Teacher attitude and interest is the key to whatever success we may expect to have. All teachers, not just English teachers, can help. A football coach, important though he is, falls short of representing a complete program of athletics and physical education. However, it seems, the English teacher has come to represent all that is needed in the secondary-school teaching of reading, spelling, writing, speaking, *etc.*

As the immediate supervisors of school faculties, what can we do further to convince some of the exalted subject specialists to give more attention to helping pupils to read better, to study effectively? Frankly,

I believe much could be emulated in the procedures of athletic coaches who study their boys individually, who "stress fundamentals," and who require fervent *practice* of the special skills upon which the game depends.

Sometimes a famous coach is reputed to have a "system." A review of coaching systems from those of Stagg to Brown would not reveal one universal method, *except* in the burning enthusiasm and confidence these men impart.

In helping the poor reader, *wherever* he is reading poorly, we need this "coaching" spirit. Very fortunate are the secondary-school pupils whose teachers have it.

"A teacher must be an artist rather than an artisan," were the words of my great teacher and friend Paul Rankov Radosavljevich. Also, as he would say, the work of the artisans has become: automatized, mechanized, fossilized, ossified, petrified, and cocoonized! Can we imbue some of these artisans with the imagination and initiative of the artist and with the personal zeal of the coach? If we can, we shall witness more activity leading to reading achievements.

Reading must be taught by the teachers we *have*. That they are not prepared in the methods peculiar to the elementary school is no excuse. What is important is the development of recognizable responsibility for the teaching of reading. If this leads to earnestly directed activity, there is hope of rescue for many poor readers.

Teachers of the several subjects can effectively employ eclectic method in the teaching of reading. (I leave to the other presentation on this program what can be done more specifically by the reading or English teacher.) Primarily, the challenge to the teacher is to reveal how indispensable reading skill is to some purpose that the pupil holds valuable. To do that, the teacher has to know the pupil. The wise teacher knows that secondary-school pupils vary so in taste and reading accomplishment that no one prescription for improvement will help all of them. There is no panacea for the poor reader except a mixture of interest, insight, and zeal on the part of the teacher.

There are many secondary-school teachers who have these attitudes about their work. It is a major supervisory problem to inspire more of them to *try* to teach reading, especially to pupils who read poorly.

WHERE CAN TEACHERS GET HELP FOR THE POOR READER?

The complex problem of secondary-school reading is one in which the classroom teacher should receive help from numerous sources. Only a few of the possibilities are listed:

1. *The Bulletin of the N.A.S.S.P.*, Vol. 34, No. 168, February 1950

"Improving Reading Instruction in the Secondary School" is the topic to which the entire issue is devoted. There is a short discus-

sion calling attention to reading in the various subject fields. The second part suggests ways of teaching essential reading skills. There is an excellent professional bibliography.

2. Curricular provisions

In some schools, provision is made for pupils who are of the "retarded" type to use an entirely different book in English—a reader, for instance, one year lower in difficulty. Cleveland junior high schools do this. Adjusted supplementary books, booklets, and workbooks are employed to give emphasis to reading through grade nine.

At a higher level, we established a tenth grade class at Euclid Shore that used mostly current reading materials instead of textbooks in literature. Books, magazines, newspapers, and content texts were used in keeping with the pupils' interests and reading abilities. While some people in a class of this kind may not read above the level of the usual elementary-school materials something more adapted to teen-age interests is needed. From really trying, under guidance, to read things he finds interesting, the teen-ager may be helped in improving his basic skills. This approach is more promising than formal presentations through drill in phonics, etc.

With the poor reader in mind, such deviations from standard English courses may be recommended. Much of the usual offering in high-school English is just a passing show for the poor readers, who can only look on with mingled feelings while the performance is put on by the "kids" who can read.

There is nothing wrong with English grammar or with the study of it. But what object is there, just because he is in grade eight or ten, to have a boy who cannot read or spell spend a semester principally in grammatical study? There seems to be a certain futility and mystery in it. Although "every teacher should be a teacher of reading," it is in the English curriculum that an example can be set for other departments in reference to reading instruction.

Further special suggestions for "Reading Instruction for the Slow Learner in the Secondary School" are to be found in *The Bulletin of the N.A.S.S.P.*, Vol. 35, No. 176, February, 1951. The presentation gives special emphasis to the experience-type lesson. There is a helpful guide to the diagnosis of reading difficulties and to related treatment techniques.

3. The library and the librarian

The library situated in the school affords unequalled help when conducted by a competent librarian. It can provide incentives and opportunities for poor readers beyond the possibilities of any classroom. I am thinking of this in terms of our situation in Euclid where the City Library Board maintains an extensive library in each elementary and secondary school. Teachers regularly take classes to the library for instruction by the librarians. In this attractive room, where

they are surrounded by books, the pupils are allowed to browse for titles and topics that may excite their interests in reading. The librarians explain the use of the card catalogue and of the encyclopedias and reference shelves. Special attention is given to selecting books suitable to the reading abilities of individuals. In the high schools this experience is a newly-found pleasure for many pupils who have previously attended parochial or elementary schools where there was no such reading center.

There is no accurate way of estimating how many poor readers have been aided by the opportunities which transcend the appeal of textbooks. However, it is evident that the poor reader may profit by reading almost anything that interests him. Mature assistance of the librarian and teacher will enable him gradually to upgrade his selections.

As a corollary to this activity, the thorough teacher will make skillful use of book reports because there is no way a reader can reveal his comprehension except by oral or written reproduction of the author's thoughts.

4. *Medical service*

The general health and medical history of each poor reader should be known or determined. The findings of school clinics and of private physicians should be studied for possible connection with reading disability. It is possible that this is not regarded at the secondary-school level to the same extent as in better elementary schools. Constant attention is advisable to find out about defects of vision and hearing especially.

5. *Speech and hearing therapy*

Auditory defects and disabilities of speech have perhaps resulted in more poor reading than has resulted from poor vision. There are a number of reasons for assuming this. Eye defects are the more obvious. They are usually more effectively treated. Auditory defects are concealed, often with peculiar skill. Speech defects that have persisted and that have been tolerated through childhood can be associated with poor reading by the secondary-school pupil. Sometimes the result is complete aversion to the activity. Surely, a pupil whose articulation is lazy or imperfect is handicapped in the mental effort to read language that he cannot pronounce. Only expert attention can cope with the training problem involving unlearned labials and gutturals.

School systems in Ohio are rapidly adding speech and hearing therapists to their staffs. Their are now ninety two such special teachers. Thirteen of them work in Cleveland elementary schools. No specific claims can be made for this relatively new aid for poor readers. However, it is a sincere, promising, and practical approach to the understanding and improvement of some factors of reading disability with which regular teachers cannot be expected to cope alone.

6. *Psychological service*

In addition to group testing which is feasible in the classroom, there should be personnel and facilities to which poor readers can be

referred for more thorough and individual testing. Such service, associated with the medical service, affords guidance to the teacher that is of a diagnostic and screening character. This only helps to locate the trouble. It does not diminish or replace the need for instruction. Helen Blair Sullivan, although in charge of the Boston University Educational Clinic, says that the place for reading instruction is in the classroom.

In poor reading, as in other ailments, progress has been made in recognizing and analyzing disabilities; also, as with other ailments, the diagnosis does not necessarily provide the cure. The real situation may not be as simple as suggested by mechanistic analysis. Reading is a complex skill.

RESCUING THE CITIZEN

To the extent that a poor reader in secondary school can improve his accomplishment in this activity, he is improving as a citizen. Man is free only when equipped with the intellectual tools and habits necessary to mature understanding. Certainly, reading heads the list of the requirements.

What the poor reader needs most is (1) encouragement, opportunity, and incentive, (2) sympathetic and patient direction, and (3) experience that is satisfying and developmental, not frustrating. In using these measures for the rescue of the poor reader, progress is more likely if there is mutual faith in the undertaking. A teacher's evident conviction that a pupil can and will do better bolsters the pupil's faith in his own efforts. Above all values of methods and materials must be placed the human help that comes from personal interest, of faith in pupil, faith in teacher that a *rescue is possible*.

From the standpoint of the secondary-school principal, the hope of rescuing the poor reader depends chiefly upon the zeal and efficiency of the rescue squad; the *teaching staff*. The rescue is reasonably to be expected if the teachers are alert to the plight of the poor reader and sympathetically interested to go to his aid, to start and to carry forward *some* activity that is frankly related to the thought-getting process of *reading*.

HOW CAN THE POOR READER IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL BE RESCUED?

WILLIAM S. GRAY

THE QUESTION assigned for discussion is based on at least two assumptions. The first is that the poor readers now in secondary schools create problems of sufficient magnitude to merit definite

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study by members of this Association. Unfortunately, such is the case. Observations and the results of tests show that a surprisingly large proportion of secondary-school pupils are deficient in many basic aspects of reading and are unable to prepare assignments effectively. As a result they are frustrated in their efforts to do school work. Furthermore, teachers are baffled by the problems which they present and are eagerly seeking help in solving them. Appropriate procedures must be adopted if many of the poor readers are rescued. To this end informed leadership is essential on the part of principals.

The second assumption is that the efficiency of poor readers can be significantly increased. The results of hundreds of experiments justify the hope that distinct improvement can be made in many cases. They supply striking evidence, however, that the extent of the improvement possible varies widely among pupils and that the kinds of training needed to secure best results must be adapted to their varying capacities, achievements, and needs. Obviously, the solution of the problem presented by poor readers is not a simple one. As an aid in identifying the extent and nature of the problems faced, reference will be made, first, to three significant facts about the distribution of reading ability in secondary schools.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF READING ABILITY

The most significant fact revealed by tests given during recent years in hundreds of secondary schools is that reading ability, like all other human traits and achievements, is distributed normally. As long as the secondary-school population was limited to a highly selective group, it was reasonable to expect relatively high reading achievement on the part of most pupils. As enrolments expand, it is in harmony with natural expectation that scores on reading tests should approach more and more closely to a normal distribution. The rapid increase during recent years in the extent of the problems created by poor readers is in part, but not wholly, the product of radical changes in the character of the pupil population.

Further study of the data available shows, second, that the average reading scores of pupils in the respective grades varies widely among schools. For example, the average scores of ninth-grade pupils in some high schools are equal to the national norm for the twelfth grade. Similarly, the average scores of twelfth-grade pupils in other schools do not exceed the national norm for the ninth grade. Such variations are due primarily to differences in the character of school communities, the economic and cultural levels of the families involved, and the mental capacity of the pupils. These facts indicate that the reading problem in different schools varies widely both in its basic nature and degree. It follows that each school faces the responsibility of studying its own situation and adopting instructional procedures that harmonize with its particular needs.

A third striking fact revealed by the results of reading tests relates to the range in reading ability represented in specific schools or school systems. In general, the grade scores of pupils in any grade level in high schools vary over a range of eight, ten or more grades. As a result of tests given recently in a city school system to several thousand ninth-grade pupils, it was found that the scores made varied from the second-grade to the fourteenth. Assuming that a grade score of 8.5 is essential to prepare typical ninth-grade assignments, almost forty percent of the pupils involved were deficient. Nineteen percent were retarded from one-half to two years, nine percent from two to three years, six percent from three to four years, and four percent from four to seven years. If it could be assumed that these pupils differed primarily in extent of retardation in reading, a simple solution would be to classify them into relatively homogeneous groups, as far as extent of deficiency in reading is concerned, and provide appropriate remedial training. Unfortunately, such a proposal is invalid. In support of this contention, I wish to consider next the types of poor readers found in secondary schools and the dominant needs of each.

TYPES OF POOR READERS AND NEEDED ADJUSTMENTS

Detailed studies of the capacity, reading ability, and needs of pupils reveal at least three distinguishable groups of poor readers. The first includes what I shall call the "Needlessly Retarded Readers." They are characterized by the fact that they read much below the level expected in terms of their mental ability and appear to have no personal handicaps or deficiencies which might cause retardation in reading. As a rule, they read slowly, carelessly, and with meager comprehension. They have limited power of word analysis and are unable to use the dictionary in securing meanings and pronunciations. They also fail, as a rule, to adapt their method and speed of reading to the kinds of material at hand and to specific purpose for reading. Even more significant is the fact that they usually are not interested in reading and avoid reading whenever they can.

Such pupils are the product of a wide variety of factors or conditions such as irregularity in attendance, frequent moving from one to another, inadequate or ineffective teaching, lack of rapport between teacher and pupils. They need a period of carefully-planned instruction in reading adjusted to their specific needs, given by well-prepared, inspiring teachers who know how to impose responsibility. The procedures adopted should arouse interest in reading, stimulate effort to improve, correct specific group and individual weaknesses, and promote growth in all the basic aspects of reading. The instruction given should be organized on a group basis but provide abundant opportunity for small group and individual guidance. It should be based on materials that are definitely interesting to the specific groups taught. Furthermore, the activities provided should appeal to the pupils as

significant and worthwhile. The training needed should be given, preferably, during the first year in high school to classes which do not exceed twenty in number. In some schools it is provided as an extra course and in others as a substitute for first-semester English. Judging from recent trends, the latter plan seems to be preferred. As a result of a semester's training at least three fourths of the needlessly retarded readers are usually rescued and are able henceforth to carry regular work with reasonable ease and efficiency.

The second group of poor readers, which comprises from five to fifteen percent of the school population, are much more unfortunate than the first group and may be characterized as "Handicapped Readers." As in the case of the needlessly retarded readers they read below the level expected in terms of their mental ability. They do so, however, because of personal and environmental factors which definitely retard progress and which must be removed, corrected, or adjusted to before satisfactory progress in reading can be made. Such conditions include retarded language and speech development, limited background of experience, unfortunate personality structures, serious emotional disorders, deficiencies in hearing and vision, poor health, and unfavorable home conditions such as negative parental attitudes, lack of encouragement, excessive home or remunerative work, and disturbing parental relations.

As implied by the foregoing statements, handicapped readers present far more challenging and complex problems than do needlessly retarded readers. They vary widely in the extent of their reading deficiency and the causal factors involved. As a rule, the greater the retardation in reading the greater the number and severity of the causal factors involved. Of primary importance in dealing with such cases is a sympathetic, constructive attitude on the part of the school staff. They should be assigned to a teacher who is qualified to make a careful study of the nature and causes of their deficiencies, who can secure the co-operation, if necessary, of the school physician, a psychiatrist, and an eye and ear specialist, both in making the diagnosis and in prescribing therapeutic measures, and who can plan the kinds of corrective and remedial instruction best adapted to the needs of each individual.

From an administrative point of view these pupils should be organized into more or less homogeneous groups, varying in size from ten to fifteen pupils, depending upon the extent and nature of the retardation. Smaller classes are more essential than in the case of needlessly retarded readers because far more individual help is necessary. Many high schools have organized special classes for handicapped readers which are designated as English R 1, 2, 3, or 4, depending on the extent of the retardation or deficiency. Not infrequently progress is very rapid once the case has been diagnosed and the causal factors corrected or adjusted to. As a rule, however, far more time and effort is required than is true in the case of needlessly retarded readers.

The statement should be added that in smaller schools it is often necessary to assign both the needlessly retarded and the handicapped readers to the same class where effort is made to meet their respective needs through small group and individual instruction.

A third group of pupils who read below grade expectancy include a very large majority of the mentally retarded pupils, or slow learners. They comprise from five to fifteen or more per cent of the school's population, depending upon the community, and vary from a half year below grade expectancy to the low end of the curve of distribution. These pupils are not retarded in terms of mental ability but are reading as well as could be expected in terms of their capacity to learn. They are often erroneously assigned to corrective and remedial reading classes. They should receive, rather, developmental training in reading and the other language arts adjusted to their respective levels of advancement and rates of learning. The most appropriate arrangement where many pupils of this type are involved is a series of developmental courses in the language arts offered by the English Department, beginning as low as the third, fourth, or fifth grade level. Such courses have been designated by some departments as English S 1, 2, 3, or 4, depending upon the extent of the deficiency involved. In the case of smaller schools it may be necessary to classify such pupils with the needlessly retarded and the handicapped readers. Wherever this plan is adopted the teacher should keep in mind the distinguishing differences between the types of readers assigned to her and provide for their respective needs through small group or individual instruction.

Because of both their low reading ability and their slow rate of learning these pupils encounter serious difficulties in other aspects of their school programs. Two theories have been advanced with respect to their treatment in content fields. The one assumes that in a democratic society it is better to classify such pupils with normal and bright children where all may share their interpretations of reading material and pool judgments in reaching conclusions relating to the problems studied. According to this plan the reading materials assigned should be adjusted to the varying levels of reading ability of the pupils taught. Unfortunately, appropriate materials are often difficult to secure. In such cases the slow learners struggle hopelessly with assignments that are beyond their depth, become genuinely discouraged, and either adopt a hostile attitude or drop out of school, if attendance laws permit. The achievement of one of the basic purposes of American secondary schools is thus thwarted.

A second theory assumes that the slow learner and the poor reader will make more progress and develop a more wholesome personality if he is not forced to compete hopelessly with those who are far more capable. Accordingly, pupils are assigned to classrooms where work in reading, the other language arts, and essential content fields is

given by one teacher, as in most elementary schools. In all other activities such as shop, singing, and athletics, they are assigned to classes along with other pupils. Several interesting experiments are in progress in this area. Answers to two questions are desirable before final conclusions can be reached. The first is, what are the relative values and disadvantages of the two plans, as determined by success in school work, influence on personality development, and effect on social understanding and cooperation. The second question relates to the point along the scale of intelligence at which the use of the second plan becomes more effective, if at all, than the first. There is urgent need of extended study and research in high schools to find the best procedures to adopt in providing for the needs of slow learners who are poor readers.

Two additional groups of readers in secondary schools merit consideration in this discussion. The first includes the pupils who are above average or superior mentally but who read definitely below expectancy in terms of their capacity to learn. Because assignments are usually gauged to the middle of the class, these pupils are able to meet requirements with little or no effort and as a result they do not acquire all of the competence in reading of which they are capable. Abundant evidence is available which shows that retardation in reading is much more prominent among the mentally superior than among the slow learners. A potential of tremendous value in democracy is thus not cultivated to the maximum. Vigorous effort should be made in every classroom through differentiated assignment to utilize far more fully than at present the capacity of superior pupils for breadth and depth of interpretation and for discriminating, critical reading. By grading their requirements steadily upward far greater growth in reading can be secured than is often true today.

The final group to which reference will be made includes the pupils of average ability who are making normal progress. Two findings of research throw light upon the school's responsibility to these pupils with respect to reading. The first is that growth in reading is a continuous process. This is due to the fact that each period in the school life of children and youth makes new demands upon the reader which result, in turn, in greater effort and increased competence. The second finding is that growth is facilitated through a carefully planned developmental program in reading through the secondary-school period, and even later.

Such instruction has been provided in an increasing number of high schools during recent years through an expansion of the English program to include emphasis on all the language arts including reading. This plan, or some other that aims to achieve the same purposes, must be adopted if secondary schools are to promote growth among such pupils in harmony with their capacity and to free themselves of the

criticism that they are sending readers into college and adult life who must later be rescued.

The discussion thus far has identified five types of readers for whom appropriate provision is essential: the needlessly retarded, the handicapped, the slow learner of limited reading ability, pupils of superior learning capacity who fail to read as well as they should, and pupils of average learning capacity and reading ability who need systematic help in becoming independent, self-reliant, discriminating readers. Because each of these types of readers requires a different kind of training, the problem appears at first to be quite complex. The fact should be remembered, however, that American secondary schools are now in transition from programs of instruction which impose similar requirements and uniform standards for all, to more flexible programs adjusted to the varying capacities and needs of pupils. It requires time to develop such a program with respect to reading. Those schools which have been attacking the problem vigorously are making notable progress.

ESSENTIALS OF A SOUND READING PROGRAM IN HIGH SCHOOLS

In conclusion, I wish to present eight essentials of a sound reading program in secondary schools as proposed by a recent committee on reading in high schools and colleges appointed by the National Society for the Study of Education.¹ If applied in principle they will aid materially both in rescuing the poor reader and in promoting growth in reading among all pupils in harmony with their respective capacities and needs.

1. *A careful appraisal of the reading interests, attainments, and needs of pupils at the time of admission.* The facts secured are needed by administrators in identifying the types of readers who enrol and in developing curriculums of appropriate breadth and variety, by counselors in advising pupils concerning their programs, by librarians in selecting reading materials of appropriate variety and range in difficulty.

2. *Instruction in the basic attitudes and skills common to mature types of readers.* By assigning responsibility for their development to a specific department, such as English, great economy can be effected in promoting desirable types of growth. Training should begin at a student's present level of attainment and broaden in harmony with the increasing demands made upon him.

3. *Special types of training, as recommended earlier, for the needlessly retarded reader, the handicapped reader, and the poor reader of limited capacity to learn.* It should be given under the direction of a teacher who is well qualified not only in diagnosis and remediation

¹Reading in the High School and College, *Forty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part III, University of Chicago Press, 1948.

but also in basic instruction in reading at both the elementary and high-school levels.

4. *Provision of conditions favorable for effective learning in all curriculum fields.* These involve a rich, provocative classroom environment, challenging purposes for study, a meaningful background of related experience, the co-ordinated use of reading and other aids to learning, and reading materials that vary widely in nature and difficulty. These conditions often receive far too little consideration by many content teachers. They thus unwittingly defeat the very purposes they are striving to attain through instruction in their respective fields.

5. *Skillful guidance of reading activities in each subject taught.* In this connection, teachers should build upon, maintain, and further refine the basic reading competencies referred to earlier. They should also assume full responsibility for developing the specialized reading skills required in their respective fields. Increasing competence in reading is thus conceived as an essential part of the total pattern of development sought by teachers of given subjects.

6. *Stimulation and guidance of the personal reading of pupils.* Unfortunately, the present reading interests and tastes of adolescents leave much to be desired. As a result of the strong appeal which movies, radio, and television make, the importance of cultivating keen interest in reading has increased rapidly during recent years.

7. *Adequate library facilities.* Library services should be organized and administered so that the reading needs of pupils can be served at the various times and places where reading functions to greatest advantage.

8. *Continuous appraisal of the effectiveness of the program and the teaching procedures used.* Of special importance are those evaluation techniques that can be used by teachers in determining how well they have secured desirable types of development in and through reading among their pupils.

The provision of a sound reading program is one of the most urgent problems faced by secondary schools as they attempt to serve with increasing effectiveness the increasing number of youth who enroll. It should provide needed help not only for poor readers but also for the average and superior readers in order that all may achieve in proportion to their capacity. The goals desired can be attained only through vigorous support and leadership on the part of all administrative officers.

Group XII (*Wednesday*)—TOPIC: What Are the Administrative Problems of Consolidated Schools with Grades 1-12?

CHAIRMAN: *E. N. Howell*, Principal, Swannanoa Union School, Swannanoa, North Carolina

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WHAT ARE THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS OF
CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS WITH
GRADES ONE TO TWELVE?

ALBERT O. JENKINS

PROBABLY the most difficult problems of consolidation are encountered in the process of the formation of consolidated districts. However, I shall confine my remarks to the administrative problems which arise after the new district is accomplished. I shall also discuss the problems from my experience in the formation of two New York State central school districts.

NEW BOARD OF EDUCATION

When a typical central rural school district is formed a new Board of Education of five, seven, or nine members is elected. In order to reassure the voters in the smaller rural districts, it has been established practice to elect a majority of the board of education from those districts, with a minority coming from the former union free school or village district. This often means that the majority has had little experience with the problems of large units; their experience has often been confined to the trusteeship of one-room rural schools where they acted as sole trustee. In centralization, where two or more small villages are involved, certain community rivalries may exist which must be overcome for the common good of the new district. It is important that an intelligent and understanding leader be elected as president if the new district is to have a harmonious beginning. A process of education of individual members of the board in the understanding of his function in the establishment of policies is necessary from the outset. The supervising principal will want to have his duties as the administra-

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tive officer clearly defined and recognized. I would say that this understanding of function of office is the greatest single factor in the success of consolidation.

It is at this point of the organizing of the district that the administrator needs to summon all of his resources of administrative skill to earn the confidence of the board of education. Too often the board of education is inclined to doubt whether the principal of the former smaller school has the qualities of leadership to properly carry out the more complex program of the new district. Because he has undoubtedly been in the forefront of the campaign for consolidation, the principal may become the target for criticism by the opposition. The manner in which he conducts himself in this situation will determine in large measure his success as the educational leader in his community.

STAFF

One of the most immediate results of centralization of schools is the broadening of curriculum offerings. New or additional teachers in art, music, shop, agriculture, homemaking, guidance, *etc.*, must be secured and facilities prepared for their use. Problems arise in the absorbing into the new school of those teachers of the former districts who are qualified. Orienting these new teachers to the philosophy of the district is an administrative problem not to be overlooked. There is also the delicate problem in New York State of the status of tenure of teachers when consolidation takes effect. According to New York State law a teacher who has tenure in the districts comprising the centralization keeps that tenure in the reorganized district. Problems arise when two teachers are qualified for the same position but only one teacher is needed. The selection and training of custodians, bus drivers, cooks, and office workers must be planned early to insure an efficient and capable staff.

CURRICULUM

One of the important reasons for consolidation is to provide better opportunities for education for the youth of the area. In rural areas it is the only way to have schools large enough in enrollment to justify a diversified curriculum to meet the needs of those pupils who are preparing for higher education as well as those whose formal education will end in the high school.

Many problems will arise in writing courses of study for the new departments of agriculture, homemaking, industrial arts, physical education, art, and music. The selection and purchasing of equipment for these new enterprises requires close study of needs and finances. One of the practical problems to be solved will be the integrating of the courses of study of pupils who come together from different schools for the first time. The evaluation of the work done in these schools in the secondary field needs to be done carefully so that the pupil can

progress in the new school without loss of credit. The grade placement of elementary pupils will be a difficult problem. Standards of achievement will vary in the contributing schools. A program of testing may be necessary to insure proper grade placement.

PUPILS

The administrator of a consolidated school will recognize the imperative necessity of giving attention to the integration of the new pupils from the smaller rural districts with the established graded school in the village where the main school is located. The new pupils will have to give up their loyalties to their old school. The student body of the main building should be schooled beforehand in ways to make the new students welcome and wanted. If this is not done there is danger of "cliques" forming with ill feeling between rural and village children. Means should be found to include all pupils in clubs, activities, and athletics. A program to develop "school spirit" for the new student body will operate to instill a high type of morale throughout the school. The suggestion that the entire staff and the pupils are embarking on an adventure in the attempt to make the school the best in the region will catch the imagination of all and make them feel that each has an important job to do.

TRANSPORTATION

Transportation of pupils in a consolidated district is probably the most vital problem to both the administration and the parents. The establishment of bus routes with a fixed policy of how far a pupil may be expected to walk, how long the routes will be, and the use of "feeder" routes to the main routes will need the support of the voters. Before centralization many parents have fears about transportation of their younger children which means that extreme safety measures are important. The decision of whether to operate double or single bus runs will depend on the topography of the district and availability of transportation equipment. Whether to operate half-day kindergartens with extra transportation will need to be considered. Some districts provide transportation one hour after school closes to permit rural youngsters to participate in activities which would otherwise be denied them.

The selection of bus drivers is sometimes difficult since the job is often part-time employment. However, high type individuals need to be sought, men who know how to deal with children and who have the confidence of the parents. They should be trained in bus driving schools so that they understand their responsibility in relation to school officials, parents, and children. Pupils, too, should be made aware of their responsibility in assuring a safe and smooth functioning transportation program. Rules and regulations for good conduct on buses may well be a part of a pupil's school handbook. It must be impressed upon

them that the bus driver has the same relation to them on the buses that the teacher has in the classroom. If the program of transportation operates smoothly and to the satisfaction of parents the biggest step toward a successful consolidation will have been accomplished.

SCHOOL LUNCH

Another administrative problem is the setting up of an adequate lunch program. In many consolidated districts nearly the entire school enrollment will eat lunch at school. The advent of Federal aid for school lunches has increased the number of pupils eating at school to the extent that most cafeterias' facilities are overtaxed and extra shifts have to be provided. Here again the selection of personnel is an important factor in keeping good public relations with the patrons.

Closely allied with the lunch program is the noon hour problem, especially where a portion of the student body goes home to lunch. Schools meet this need by providing supervision for intramural activities, study rooms, game rooms, movies, etc. Here is an opportunity for the student council to use its ability for co-operative planning with the faculty. In some schools where no pupils go home to lunch a continuous program is maintained with a lunch period scheduled for each pupil.

INTERPRETING THE SCHOOLS TO THE PUBLIC

A major responsibility of the administration should be to keep the public informed as to progress and changes in curriculum as they are being planned. Through such devices as citizens' councils, parent-teacher associations, service clubs, and adult education programs, the public will be constantly reminded of the needs of the schools.

One of the most successful projects I have experienced in this connection has been the making of a film of school life for a year. This film has been shown to parents' groups and to the voters at the annual school meeting. Parents are pleased to see their children in action in their regular class programs as well as extraclass activities. There are many other means of interpreting the school to the public—newspapers, special annual reports, and bulletins sent to the homes. Of course we will all agree that the best ambassadors of the school are the pupils as they report at home their reactions to the school.

GUIDANCE AIDS

The Chronicle Guidance Press of Moravia, New York, has a monthly publication called the *Career Index* which is used by high-school vocational and education counselors throughout the country. In the Index are found annotated references to current vocational and educational material costing not over 50 cents. For further information about this monthly publication write to the organization at the above address.

WHAT ARE THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS OF CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS WITH GRADES ONE TO TWELVE?

PHILA HUMPHREYS

IT IS A rare privilege to have the opportunity to share in guiding the development of boys and girls through a period of twelve years. Principals in high schools housed in separate buildings often know little about the kinds of educational activities provided for the boys and girls who enter their respective schools. Frequently, too, the gap between the elementary and high school is a major obstacle to continuous well-rounded development. However, the principal of the twelve-year school has an opportunity to be in on the planning from the beginning. He knows that whether or not the boys and girls will enter high school equipped to deal effectively with the problems of living and learning on that level depends upon the kinds of experiences they have had before, and takes steps to acquaint himself with the characteristics of a good elementary school and budgets a fair amount of time each week to work with the teachers on curriculum problems on that level. He is concerned, too, with the need for guiding all teachers, high school and elementary, in coming to a common understanding about the characteristics and needs of youth and the best way to meet these needs. Principals who teach full time are limited in what they can do. However, when they have a plan that shows how they can improve the educational program if freed from classroom teaching, most school boards are willing to make some provision for it. If approached in a democratic manner, teachers, too, are usually willing to take on extra duties provided there is an equitable distribution of the load and it is evident that the principal will use the time that he gains on other essential school matters.

IMPORTANCE OF HUMAN RELATIONS

If the school is to be a good place for living and learning there must be good human relations. In the school where the principal is rigid and undemocratic, teachers are afraid to ask for needed supplies. They are never quite sure that they are doing a good job. They quit making suggestions and often regard each other with distrust. Little children keep out of the principal's way. Parents say, "There is no use going to the principal; he won't listen if you do." On the other hand, when the principal is friendly and democratic in his dealings

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with parents, teachers, and pupils, the school is usually a good place in which to work and play. Pupils and teachers greet visitors with a friendly smile. There are interesting activities going on in each classroom. Everyone is going about his work in a relaxed but business-like way. No one seems left out. The pupils are eager to share their experiences with others. When asked how he did it, one principal said, "I keep my door open and my ear to the ground." Another said, "I always make sure that every conference whether with pupil, teacher, or parent ends on a friendly note." The teachers make such comments as: "He notices the good things that you do and when he gives you suggestions he doesn't make you feel inferior." "He talks things over with us." "We know where we stand." "He says that we are in this together and if I fail, it is partly his fault, too." The children say, "He knows what kids like." "He smiles at me when he says hello." "He expects you to be good, but when you are bad he doesn't scare you. He just talks to you in a nice way." "He told my mother that I was trying hard in school." Parents say, "Mr. Brown seemed glad that I stopped in to see him. He says that the school can do a better job when parents and teachers work together."

Principals are human, too. Their need for security and recognition is just as great as that of the pupils, parents, and teachers with whom they work. No one expects them to be perfect. However, the ability to see the other person's point of view and to use tact and diplomacy in dealing with problems that come up go a long way toward establishing the principal as an effective leader of the school.

TEACHER-PRINCIPAL RELATIONSHIPS

It is important to know that each teacher is getting off to a good start each year. The beginning teacher should not be given the hardest job. Neither should she be left to do the best that she can without any encouragement or guidance. Colleges do a better job each year of training teachers, but helping the beginning teacher make the adjustment to the local school is the principal's responsibility. Because the supply is inadequate, principals have had to employ teachers with little or no elementary training. It is neither fair to these teachers nor to the children to let them struggle along without help. They need to know where what they do fits into the total program. They need help in getting an understanding of the characteristics of the age group with which they are working. They need help in making out a schedule and blocking out the work for the year. Moreover, the way in which materials and activities are used to develop new concepts and skills is much too important to be left to chance. Access to professional literature and regular times for conferences must be provided. An analysis of plans and observations in the classroom points up problems to work on. However, when teachers know that the principal is sincerely trying to be helpful, they usually have many questions to ask. Con-

ferences with available local supervisors and opportunities to observe and talk with skillful, sympathetic, experienced teachers are other sources of help, if the principal's time is limited or he is inexperienced himself.

Experienced teachers need encouragement, too. Most teachers are conscientious, and it is disheartening to be limited year after year in what they can do for boys and girls by conditions that can be corrected. If pupil load is excessive or supplies are inadequate, definite steps should be taken to do something about it. The teacher who wants to try out a method that is new to her should be encouraged, when the procedure seems to be in keeping with the best modern practice.

Conferences with all teachers on potential learning and behavior problems as teachers feel the need, and frequently before reports to parents go out, can do a great deal to alleviate tensions so that better teaching and learning can go on. Many good teachers too, are limited in what they can do because one or two pupils demand constant attention. This frequently happens in a school when there is no one to whom the teacher can go for help with pupils who are slow learning or extremely maladjusted socially such as the child who is too aggressive, withdrawing, or fearful. Teachers find it difficult to accept all pupils as they are, particularly when there is pressure from above to force pupils to meet grade standards that are beyond their ability to achieve. "The high-school teachers complain if all of the pupils have not mastered these skills," they are heard to say. We need to be more concerned about the causes of social maladjustment and the extent to which the school may be contributing to it. Moreover, there is far too much information available on child development to permit any justification for continuing to deal with the behavior of maladjusted pupils in terms of expediency only. That they need to grow in ability to exercise self-restraint is obvious. However, they grow toward self-discipline more effectively when they have a share in making decisions that affect their welfare. They are much more able to participate as helpful, co-operative members of a group when they feel good about themselves. Pupils who feel that they are no good, who do not belong, who cannot do the work, or who are not challenged find it difficult to exercise self-discipline.

In those schools where teachers are concerned about all-around development, failure is at a minimum. Each teacher has access to test data that help her to judge each pupil's mental ability and pattern of learning. Each teacher through the study of records, conferences, and observation systematically accumulates information that will help her better understand each pupil and find more effective ways of helping him solve his problems. The teachers on all levels have access to a wide variety of materials of instruction and an effort is made to keep the class size down to a reasonable number.

BALANCED PROGRAM OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

The pupils in rural schools have just as much right to a well-balanced program of learning experiences as the pupils in large city schools. There must be provision for science, music, art, health, directed play, and social studies from the beginning as well as for the three R's. A daily schedule that limits pupil activity largely to reading and recitation tends to prohibit functional learning. Pupils do not get meaning out of the printed page except as they bring meaning to it. There must be time for assimilative experiences in which audio-visual aids play a large part. There must be time and opportunity for applying concepts and skills in doing activities that are meaningful to the pupils.

In many instances this means a rethinking of the total curriculum in terms of the needs of the boys and girls concerned. Perhaps the two most neglected areas are science and social relationships. In a recent study of children's interests, science ranked third. Children in rural areas have an opportunity to get acquainted with plants and animals in their out-of-school life and it is important for teachers to take advantage of this rich resource to make concepts in books more meaningful. They need to take advantage of this natural curiosity of the children in the world around them before this interest is dulled as is so often the case. Science units can be alternated or integrated with social studies in the primary grades. In general, most primary teachers find it is practical to set aside 40-50 minutes each day for an activity period in which language, social studies, science, health, and art are integrated. In the intermediate grades many schools allot 150-200 minutes each week for science and health. A semester could be given to each. However, most teachers find that it is more practical to alternate units according to interest, possible correlations, and available materials.

There is a good deal of evidence to show that the teaching of social studies as it has been taught in many schools does not contribute substantially to its major objective, namely, that of developing effective citizenship. In fact, school as well as lay people are inclined to be critical of local, national, and international leaders for their lack of concern for the common welfare and their inability to work co-operatively on vital community problems. They fail to realize that concern for others and facility in the use of social skills does not come with physical maturation any more than does ability in reading or arithmetic. Moreover, social skills such as are involved in problem solving and planning and working effectively in groups cannot be acquired by reading and talking about them. There must be many opportunities each year for practice in situations that are real to the individuals involved. Many teachers need a great deal of help in planning their teaching around large units. A first step might be to reduce the content load in

social studies in the fifth and sixth grade so that more time could be spent by the pupils in planning culminating activities at the end of each unit to share with parents and other boys and girls.

There are many situations each year where pupils on all grade levels in the elementary school can be encouraged to take a more active part in planning and working together such as a list of suggestions from time to time for making the classroom a good place in which to work and play, suggestions for making new pupils feel at home, simple dramatizations of favorite stories, the development of a class newspaper, planning for excursions related to work going on, improving the lunchroom, the development of special interest clubs or a school council.

The self-contained classroom continues to be the most effective organization for providing for a well balanced program of living and learning for boys and girls in the elementary school. Principals who inherit a departmentalized school will find that the teachers are much more willing to make the transition to the self-contained classrooms if they know that they will be given help in how to teach the subjects in which they are not prepared or have not taught for a long time. Extending the provision of supervising-teachers in music and art is also an aid in making the transition. How to provide for longer blocks of time in a classroom where there are two grades is a real challenge to teachers. However, they are making progress in their ability to alternate and combine classes and to plan ahead for a two-year period.

The ungraded primary unit is gaining recognition as one way of providing continuous progress in the first three grades. In actual practice the program of activities is similar to that in the graded school, but since there are no formal promotions until the end of the third grade, the teacher's only concern is helping each pupil progress in relation to his ability. A similar plan could be developed in the intermediate grades.

Another trend that affects the regulation of the child's progress through school that has received a great deal of attention recently has been related to entrance age. Whether or not the entrance age to first grade should be raised to six by September or October first is debatable. However, unless a school has a good kindergarten and well-trained first-grade teachers who can provide an extended readiness program for the children who need it, more children will undoubtedly get off to a better start if they are six when they enter first grade. The change is usually accepted in the community when provision is made for testing borderline cases.

BETTER HOME-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

Building better home-school relationships is one of the major problems in schools everywhere. It is only when parents understand

what the school is trying to do and *why*, that they can be expected to give their full co-operation. We are critical of parents when they do not attend PTA meetings. We are hurt when they do not accept our invitations to visit in the classrooms. Perhaps it would be well for us to try to find out why parents do not come to school. Investigation usually shows that many of them are insecure and do not feel welcome in the school or classrooms. This is particularly true of the lower economic classes and minority groups.

There is no one way to go about building better home-school relationships. The knowledge that the principal and teachers are friends with whom parents can talk over problems without being made to feel inferior probably does more than any other one thing to create good will except perhaps the reports that enthusiastic interested children take home. Some principals start by sending letters or arranging conferences with parents of pre-school children that explain what the school is trying to do for their boys and girls and ways in which parents can help. Meetings in which parents and teachers talk over the needs of children today help bring about acceptance of changes in objectives and ways of working. Room teas early in the fall provide a pleasant means of getting acquainted and an opportunity for answering questions about the work of the year. In some schools the teachers supplement the formal reports with explanatory notes, and more and more teachers plan for at least one individual parent-teacher conference each year in which the teacher and parent share what they know about the child for the purpose of better providing for his growth and development. In some instances a "talent file" of human resources in the community has not only enriched the curriculum but has been of value in bringing about a mutual feeling of helpfulness. The non-teaching principal can be expected to budget ten to fifteen per cent of his time for working with parents. Many of them guide parents in at least one study group each year. A parent's book shelf and a bulletin board for parents can often be found in their buildings.

If the school is to be a good place for living and learning everything possible must be done to keep it clean and attractive and to provide adequate space and equipment. While there are many new buildings and many principals plan systematically for keeping their schools clean and in good repair, there are still too many pupils sitting in screwed down seats that do not fit and working with inadequate tools in poorly lighted classrooms. Planning to replace and enrich the supply of books, audio-visual aids, and other materials of instruction must be done regularly if pupils and teachers are to have the proper tools with which to work. It is easier to do this effectively if a *per capita* budget is set up for replacement of texts, purchase of supplementary books, tests, maps and other audio-visual aids, art supplies, and play equipment. The administrator, through his board of education, has a responsibility over and above that of anyone else in the

community to see that steps are taken to provide funds for adequately housing and equipping the school. Much respect is due the administrative head who has the "know-how" and courage to get these things done.

It is generally accepted that the principal and teachers in each school must be continually working together to keep objectives, methods, and materials up-to-date so that the school will continue to meet the needs of boys and girls in a changing world. A brief survey of several hundred elementary principals' reports indicate that a wide variety of problems have been selected for faculty study this year. Some of the topics listed include improving classroom environment, developing brief flexible curriculum guides, bridging the gap between the elementary grades and high school accumulating materials so that it will be possible to provide for differences in ability on each level, developing resourcefulness in planning and working together, reading readiness on all levels, the testing program, better use of audio-visual aids, integration of learning, improving methods of reporting pupil progress, and developing closer co-operation between the home and school. What can be done in any one year will vary with the local situation. However, teachers really appreciate the opportunity for participating in organized study when it involves a recognized need.

One way to get started is to schedule a faculty meeting early in the fall to plan ahead. What are some immediate problems? What are some of the ways of going about the study of a common one? What resources are available? Who will assume responsibility for the jobs to be done? When should the meetings be held? How long should they be? Can provisions be made to visit in other schools? Will there be money to pay the expenses of a consultant if needed? Will the way be clear to make changes in present practices if the conclusions of the study seem to warrant it? More important than the success of any one plan is the ability and willingness to adapt ways of working so that they not only meet local needs but also make the best use of available talent and materials in a program of continuous study.

1,600 WORDS EASY TO MISPRONOUNCE

More than 1,600 words are frequently mispronounced, even by educated people, it was discovered through a survey conducted by the editors of the *Lincoln Library of Essential Information*. It is a new edition—the twentieth—published last February (the Frontier Press, Buffalo, N. Y. \$21.00) This one-volume encyclopedia (also available in two volumes) includes a special table to correct pronunciation. This table includes such common words as capon, poll, satire, scion, species, and zoo. This encyclopedia includes twelve major sections—English language, literature, history, geography and travel, science, mathematics, economics and useful arts, government and politics, fine arts, education, biography and miscellany and index, and its 2,271 pages also contain 84 full-page color plates of illustrations and 12 departmental tables.

Group XIII (Wednesday)—TOPIC: What Kind of Testing Program in Today's Secondary School?

CHAIRMAN: *F. L. Blume*, Principal, Monroe High School, Saint Paul, Minnesota

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

T. W. Smith, Principal, East High School, Portsmouth, Ohio

L. S. Reardon, Principal, Braddock High School, Braddock, Pennsylvania

**WHAT KIND OF TESTING PROGRAM IN
TODAY'S SECONDARY SCHOOL?**

J. THOMAS HASTINGS

THE TOPIC of *What Kind of Testing Program in Today's Secondary School* could call for a setting forth of specific test titles, or at least test areas, together with statements of the class levels in which and calendar dates on which such tests should be given. I must leave that approach to someone more confident of his omniscience if it is to be done. It is doubtful whether it should be done, even if it could be, since educational leadership inherent in professional training should carry the responsibility of local development of plans. The best that the "evaluation-test specialist" can do is to help discover generalizations and principles which can be applied by local educational leaders.

One could discuss the topic with a view to putting emphasis on the word program—that is, steering clear of the specifics within that program—and also with an idea of defining testing programs as the scheduled administration of a group of tests. This approach would describe the processes of programming and the functions of staff members in administering some collection of tests—including methods of scheduling tests, of collecting and reporting results. These things, then, would be the "program of testing." I am positive that the good school administrator has developed methods of doing these things through efficient use of staff. And there would be no profit in telling the "bad" administrator!

Unfortunately, many existing so-called programs have been developed by a combination of the two approaches mentioned. That is, some schools are apt to talk about a testing program when in reality they have only a collection of tests which they either inherited from now-buried predecessors or bought as pieces on the not-impersonal advice of publishers' representatives or on the omniscient decree of, if you'll pardon the expression, test experts.

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They add to this program (it is notable that they seldom subtract from it) by a process which is exemplified by this kind of statement: "Let's see, we have reading and intelligence tests. I imagine we ought to have interest tests of some sort." The next step in this purely hypothetical situation is either writing to someone in whom there is some tenuous confidence and saying, "What interest tests shall we use?" or collecting samples of a number of interest tests with their descriptions, looking at the figures on number of minutes required, the coefficient called reliability, and perhaps a coefficient called validity and then choosing that one which is smallest by the first figure (minutes) and largest by the latter two (reliability and validity).

It is easy to see what the next steps are in developing such a program. My main point here—and perhaps I have spent too much time on it—is that this general sort of procedure usually nets one not a testing program but a *testing pogrom*. Its main results turn out to be five. It may increase guilt feelings and insecurities in regard to modernization of the school. It will be fairly impressive in a low-order, public-relations fashion with those lay members of the community who are impressed by things. It will bewilder the student body as another mysterious rite in which they participate but which has little meaning. It will irritate the teaching staff by requiring time off from the fairly important function of teaching without generally enhancing the teaching possibilities. Fifth and finally—and without question—it will result in inconvenience and irritation to the administrative officer who is blessed with the responsibility of seeing that it gets carried through without inciting mayhem. Unfortunately, the situation which I have just described is not too unreal. Please believe me, the school which has this kind of "a testing program"—no matter how "good" the tests in the sense of either well advertised or technical goodness—would be far better off to be slightly "unmodern" and have no testing program at all.

Now that I have set forth one of the things which a testing program should *not* be and have stated a way in which it *cannot* be defined except locally, I intend to define it positively. Since a discussion is to follow the formal presentations of this subject, it is my intent to mention two purposes and four principles which, taken together, define the "kind of program" without in each case going into detail. In a meeting like this, substantiation and elaboration are more usefully developed if left for a discussion period when real questions can be raised by those interested in the topics.

POSITIVE PURPOSES

First, it seems apparent that there are two broad purposes for testing programs, within either of which there may be a number of

sub-purposes. One purpose of testing is that of *helping* to evaluate those experiences of the pupils which the school thinks of as "the curriculum." This purpose necessitates that tests must be developed, or in some cases selected, only after careful consideration of the objectives of the school or parts thereof *in terms of changes in behavior to be brought about in the pupils*, not in terms of content to be covered. In this particular case testing *must* be recognized as only one of the devices—not the entire device—for evaluating the curriculum.

Even if we consider a test to be defined as Cronbach does in *Essentials of Psychological Testing*: "a systematic procedure for comparing the behavior of two or more persons"—even if we take this rather inclusive definition—it is apparent that for purposes of evaluating the curriculum we will want to use evidence gathered in other ways than by tests. For instance, in certain cases we will want to use an interview technique, which does not fit the definition. We will want to take note of comments and observations of people coming in contact with our product.

The second main purpose of tests is that of gathering information which is useful in respect to the guidance of individual students. Here again it is apparent that whether we use a definition of tests which would limit them to measurement or a more inclusive definition (as the one referred to) the processes of guidance and counseling are such that other kinds of information must be gathered—information from non-standardized interviews, information from personal observations (especially by trained workers), and information regarding performance in specific, but unstandardized, situations.

These two things then—curriculum evaluation and student guidance—constitute the basic purposes of tests in our educational institutions. It should be recognized that other information than that derived from tests will be necessary in fulfilling either of these purposes. It should also be emphasized that although these are mentioned as two separate purposes, the tests to be used and the data derived from them are not discreet and independent. In setting up these two purposes I would steadfastly hold to the line that no test should enter a testing program unless it can be really justified on the basis of one of them.

To exemplify what I mean, I wish to call attention to a type of comment which I hear fairly frequently. Teachers, and sometimes administrative officers, have told me that the main purpose they have in mind for testing "right now" or "this year" is that of giving an objective basis for pupils' grades. This statement represents a confusion between means and ends. Grades, I am convinced, are only justifiable as a means, not as an end. Grades are used by pupils and parents, whether so intended or not, as guidance materials. They are used in this way by teachers too. Grades are also used, and sometimes quite unfortunately, by both teachers and administrators as materials for curriculum evaluation. My thesis is that tests, therefore, should

be justified in terms of the basic purposes which are ends rather than in terms of the means (or only some of the means) for arriving at those ends.

In defining the kinds of tests or the kinds of programming of those tests which may be used in the secondary schools, it is necessary to go beyond a statement of purpose and state at least four principles which may serve as limiting conditions on the tests or on the program.

First, the tests and the program must be consonant with modern testing and evaluation techniques. Here I refer to the importance of such basic ideas as reliability, validity, and norms and to findings concerning test administration. It is extremely important to attempt to get the best possible measurement in terms of reliability and validity, to use techniques which are relevant, and to have norms which are meaningful. Unfortunately, this has too frequently meant that we choose tests which happen to have the highest correlation coefficient of some sort attached to them. There have even been cases in which some arbitrary figure, such as .88 or .xx, has been stated as a limiting number below which we shall not look. Such rules are unfortunate in that the "reliability number" itself is not very useful unless we know whether it refers to stability or equivalency and unless we know something about the sample from which it was derived. Quantitative greatness in a specific validity coefficient may be damning rather than commendable—or may at least be faint praise. A statement that "these norms have been developed on a sample of 35,000 juniors" may sound useful, but at the same time the norms may be about as applicable to the group we are studying as an algebra test would be to a school of fish. Better testing knowledge (as well as counseling principles) demand that the student be made aware of the purpose of testing.

In other words, the real meaning of this statement of consonance with testing and evaluation techniques does not imply a search for big numbers, or a following of rules, but implies a real understanding of measurement and pupil behavior. The best solution is the employment of someone on the staff who has been or who is willing to be trained in evaluation and measurement areas. Much help on these points can be derived by making good use of such books as Cronbach's *Essentials of Psychological Testing* and Lindquist's *Educational Measurement* and such journals as *Psychometrika* and *Educational and Psychological Measurement*. One final point on this item: This is the kind of work which can probably best be done by one person in a given school—it does not necessitate a committee.

The second limiting principle is that the tests themselves and the program must be consonant with the aims and objectives of the school for which the program is planned. This sounds like a truism and yet it is a principle which is too frequently violated. It implies that one should not elevate to an exaggerated importance certain skills and knowledges by the simple process of gathering evidence only on those

things and not on others which are important to the school. This principle also implies that for curriculum purposes tests which cut across departmental lines should be selected or developed. In short, this principle says that the tests in a program should be in line with the aims and objectives of the school or else the aims and objectives of the school will tend to fall into line with the tests. The former is preferable, but constant watch must be held to see that it happens.

The third principle is that the tests and the testing program should be consonant with the organizational and personnel possibilities of the institution. A good testing program for School X may not be a good testing program for School Y, not because School X and School Y have distinctly different objectives and purposes, but rather because School X and School Y differ markedly in organizational structure and in training or job requirements of personnel.

A common example of this is the case in which the school has no one satisfactorily trained in counseling although one of the two basic purposes of testing is guidance. The guidance function should not be used if trained counselors are not available. The school which has its instructional program set up in large blocks may have to use quite different tests and programming from those in a school which is organized in a fairly rigid schedule of forty-minute periods. Even though the tenets of good testing, measurement, and evaluation techniques will remain the same from school to school, and even though the aims and objectives of two schools may be alike, to some extent the tests used and certainly the program of testing must be arranged with a view to the organizational structure and the specific personnel of the school involved.

The fourth and final principle which I wish to mention is that the tests themselves and the program of testing should be consonant with the philosophy of education and of our society. On first blush, this sounds like one of those truisms that should be used to get one elected to an aldermanship—not one to be used in effectively organizing a testing program. I insist that this is not so.

As an application of this principle, let me take one example which is comparatively common. A question which I hear frequently in connection with tests and testing programs goes something like this: "Should we make test results available to pupils and pupils' parents?" The answer to that, so far as I am concerned, is a clear and ringing "Yes," but the meaning of that answer should be clarified by stating that the phrase "making test results available" in this case refers to communication of information from the examinees' responses. Test scores as such are rarely information to pupils or parents simply because they are not understandable. They may actually be, because of the perception of the receiver, *misinformation*.

The question then is raised, and justifiably, as to how one can make the results meaningful or make the information understandable.

No one should know better than professional educators that a short answer to this question is impossible, but educators have tried with some degree of success to answer similar questions. For instance, "How can we make the processes of nuclear fission understandable to a fourteen-year-old?" or "How can we make the intricacies of the mechanism of a car heater understandable to the wife of the family?" These, too, are tough problems; and the answers will depend upon the personality and former understandings of the fourteen-year-old and of the wife as well as upon the complexities of nuclear fission and the car heater.

The important thing in this discussion, however, is *why* should the answer be *yes*. I can speak for myself. My philosophy of education is such that it includes the concept that we are helping individuals to learn how to solve their problems. We are not solving problems for them (I doubt if such is possible). My philosophy also includes the widely verbalized tenet that in our society problem solving requires an ever greater dissemination of information as opposed to the promulgation of ignorance through restriction of information. Implementing this will require trained personnel.

As another example of the very practical implication of this fourth principle to the area of testing programs, I would like to point to the fact that there has been far too much "provincialism" at educational levels. We have a philosophy which says that education is a continuing and wholistic process, but in developing our testing programs we frequently act as though the secondary years can be neatly pulled out and tied off as a unit of some sort without regard for what happens to either end of that unit. Serious effort should be directed towards thinking of the testing-guidance-curriculum evaluation program as being an over-all affair from grades kindergarten through fourteen—and in many instances extending into industry and into higher institutions of learning. Departmentalization of tests, in terms of educational level or in terms of compartments of subject areas, cannot be justified if one thinks of the student as one who lives continuously rather than in discreet and arbitrary intervals.

As a final example of the application of this particular principle, I would like to direct our thinking toward that part of the philosophy held by many of us in this country which says that education is the property and concern of the people. The implication of this for testing programs is that we are seriously remiss if testing for curriculum purposes is not made a long-range, continuing process involved with the real objectives of education as we see them and with the purpose of reporting findings to the general public. If we do not gather meaningful evidence and report to the public, we can be blamed justifiably for poor stewardship by those who conscientiously ask, "What are the schools doing?" The seriousness of this statement shows up in many of the futile attempts throughout much of education today to answer

some of the attacks on education with objective, solid evidence as to outcomes. In short, unless we seriously invoke the principle of consonance with philosophy of education in deciding what kind of a testing program in our secondary school, we can be accused of quackery as opposed to professionalism.

SUMMARY

In summary, the answer to "What kind of testing program in today's secondary school?" is located in a look at two purposes—curriculum evaluation and individual pupil guidance—and is limited by at least four principles: (1) the program must use the best testing and evaluation techniques; (2) the program must be in agreement with aims and objectives of the school; (3) the program has to recognize and be consistent with the organizational structure and personnel possibilities of the school; and (4) the program must be demonstratively in accord with the philosophy of education.

WHAT KIND OF TESTING PROGRAM FOR TODAY'S SECONDARY SCHOOLS?

ELMER J. ERICKSON

IT SEEMS reasonable at the outset to state that there is no one kind of testing program that will fit the needs of all of today's secondary schools. Differences in size and location of schools, differences in the attitude of the school staff and the community toward testing, differences in the amount of money and time available for the testing program are but a few of the factors which must be considered in answering the major question posed in the subject of this paper.

The testing program which, in the judgment of the writer, will best serve the needs of today's secondary schools should be:

1. A program that is planned, administered and utilized, co-operatively by teachers, supervisors, curriculum workers, counselors, and administrators.
2. A program which is devoted to the improvement of the effectiveness of teaching and guidance in the school.
3. A program which will help pupils appraise and understand their relative strengths and weaknesses in achievement, aptitude, adjustment, personality, and interests.
4. A program that will build favorable public relations with school patrons and the community at large.

A PROGRAM JOINTLY PLANNED AND ADMINISTERED

If we are to provide a testing program that will meet the needs of today's secondary schools, it is imperative that every phase of the

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program be planned co-operatively, with all staff members or their representatives participating actively. The day in which administrators choose the tests to be given and turn the test results over to fellow administrators for limited use and careful filing should have been relegated to the dim past at least a decade ago.

Teachers who work together with supervisors and administrators in planning curriculum units, who in turn use these teaching units in the classroom, are certainly entitled and qualified to share in the preparation of evaluative tests for the measurement of unit outcomes. Teachers should know best what behavior modifications are expected as a result of unit learning experiences; therefore, they should share in the selection and preparation of evaluation tests with which we propose to measure these modifications.

Testing and learning are first cousins. The classroom teacher is responsible for the learning progress of her pupils, within reasonable limits, so she is surely entitled to the privilege of full participation in the program of evaluation designed to measure the learning progress of pupils. If test results are to facilitate effective teacher appraisal of curriculum and teaching methods, she must be a full partner in the school's co-operative testing enterprise.

The "Committee on Testing"¹ of our own association emphasized the importance of teacher participation in setting up a philosophy of testing as follows:

"In all areas, but especially in achievement testing, it is highly important that teachers help develop the philosophy and help select the tests, over and above the construction of tests. It would be well to obtain sample copies or specimen sets of several different tests in any one area and have the staff members in that area study all of the samples with a view to recommending specific selections. The resulting test policies should clarify the principles under which the entire testing program will operate."

D. Welty Lefever² of the University of Southern California has this to say about the teacher's role in stating the philosophy of the testing program: "The teacher is well acquainted with the objectives of the curriculum and with the activities desired to aid each pupil to progress toward these goals. Achievement cannot be adequately measured until a working definition of the nature of what is to be achieved has been clearly stated, recognized by the teachers, and incorporated into their daily work in the classroom. The maximum amount of co-operative thinking by the largest number of teachers under skillful leadership should produce the most successful overall program of evaluation."

¹BULLETIN of the National Secondary Principals Association, Vol. 32, p. 57, December, 1948.

²Lefever, D. Welty, *The Teacher's Role in the Evaluation of Pupil Achievement*, Education, Vol. 71, pp. 217-220, December, 1950.

A PROGRAM OF EFFECTIVE GUIDANCE

In a recent text, *Measuring Educational Achievement*, by Michaels and Karnes,¹ the statement is made that "the major purpose of evaluation is to improve instruction." Certainly there are few educators who would be unwilling to accept that quotation.

The ways in which the evaluation program can make instruction in the classroom more effective are too numerous to cover completely in this paper, so a limited number of practical aspects of the problem will be presented.

Basic to effective teaching is a good understanding of the educational achievement, the abilities and interests of the individual pupil. The busy secondary-school teacher, with an enrollment of about 150 pupils, is unable to spend much time locating pertinent facts about her pupils even though she knows how vital these data are in learning to know her pupils well. Schorling⁴ reports a study indicating that "one fourth of the teachers knew one fourth of the important facts which well-trained teachers considered important in order to plan a desirable educational program for youth."

In a recent book on Educational Measurement, W. W. Cook⁵ suggests that "the testing program should furnish the teacher with up-to-date information regarding the growth record and status of each of his pupils in at least the fields of English, reading, mathematics, study skills, and problem solving in the natural and social sciences. The tests should measure at regular intervals the permanent learnings that have been achieved toward the major and ultimate objectives of educational knowledge of the pupil and his record of achievement should be considered basic data in the educational process."

If the testing program is to really function in the daily teaching of staff members, it is absolutely essential that test data be interpreted and made available to teachers in usable, understandable form. Schorling⁶ challenges secondary schools with the statement, "It is probable that an up-to-date hospital develops a more adequate record of a patient in a week's time than the typical school does for a problem pupil who has been enrolled for eight years."

Large city districts with central evaluation sections equipped with scoring and tabulating machines and school districts fortunate enough to enjoy such services as provided by county schools offices are in a favorable position. For them, school and class lists, and even graphical portrayals of test results are available with a minimum of delay.

¹Michaels, William J. and Karnes, M. Ray, *Measuring Educational Achievement*, p. 168, McGraw Hill, 1950.

⁴Schorling, Raleigh, *Student Teaching*, p. 31, McGraw Hill, 1949.

⁵Lindquist, E. F., Editor, and Cook, Walter W., Contributor, *Educational Measurement*, p. 28, American Council on Education, 1951.

⁶Schorling, Raleigh, *Student Teaching*, p. 31, McGraw Hill, 1949.

How about the schools for whom local scoring and tabulation services are not available? Two brief answers to this question are: (1) Self scoring editions of fine tests are now available from several different test publishers at reasonable cost. (2) A complete testing service is provided by several national organizations which lend or sell comprehensive batteries, score the tests, and provide individual pupil profiles and class lists at a cost of about one dollar per pupil.

The system used in Los Angeles to bring test data to teachers, supervisors, and administrators is summarized in a recent magazine article by Lewerenz.⁷ First, areas of instructional emphasis are described in terms of pupil behavior in the Los Angeles Schools Publication, *Point of View*. Second, complete pupil educational data sheets are prepared which are based on test results. Third, the central scoring office prepares an I.B.M. card for each pupil, then through the use of sorters, counting machine, calculating punch, and the graphic item counter on test scoring machines, data are treated in various ways to facilitate maximum use and ease of interpretation. Fourth, scattergrams are prepared for classes, grades, and schools to provide better interpretation of data and easy identification of special cases. Fifth, item analyses are made to help reveal weaknesses in tests, to help students locate their areas of weakness and to aid supervisors and teachers in locating areas of weakness in the instructional program. Sixth, a tear-off record with six tear-off slips, each one bearing the pupil's name and achievement battery scores is prepared in the home room and the individual slips are distributed by the pupil to each of his teachers. Seventh, from the tear-off sheet, the teacher is able to post test results on a page in her roll book bearing the same headings that appear upon the tear-off sheets. Eighth, pupil profile cards are made available to counselors and teachers in accordance with the plan of the individual high school. Ninth, profile cards together with an explanatory statement are discussed with pupils by their counselors to assist them in self appraisal of strengths and weaknesses revealed by the tests. Tenth, profile cards with explanatory statements are sent to parents, and counselling conferences for further interpretation are encouraged.

In his text on *Measurements in Today's Schools*, Ross⁸ states that "Diagnosis is the most important function of measurement in any subject and on any educational level. Its immediate purpose is to point out where remedial measures must be applied to correct existing deficiencies, but its ultimate goal is to prevent recurrence of similar weaknesses in the future."

Through use of the diagnostic test, the teacher may bring to light specific pupil deficiencies in the various subject fields. For example,

⁷Lewerenz, Alfred Speir, "New Developments in Evaluating Achievement in the Public Schools of Los Angeles," *Education*, Vol. 71, pp. 237-244, December, 1950.

⁸Ross, C. C., *Measurement of Today's Schools*, p. 395, Prentice Hall, 1949.

a diagnostic test in essentials of English should yield part scores in such divisions as spelling, punctuation, and usage; and percentage scores on individual responses to items in punctuation such as the comma, the period, and the semicolon.

Superior teachers frequently prepare and use their own informal diagnostic tests. Inexperienced teachers and teachers not so gifted in test construction will be best served by expertly prepared diagnostic tests which will afford them a more analytical approach to their teaching. In turn, the pupil is well served because the test helps him recognize his specific learning needs by systematically revealing his errors.

As all of the children of all of the people come to America's secondary schools in increasing numbers, we see achievement and aptitude levels tumbling. Teachers, who seek to teach basic and core requirements to large numbers of students with reading, English essentials, and mathematics deficiencies, are in desperate need of diagnostic tests that are easy to give and score.

Remedial and developmental teaching have, of necessity, become the rule in many high schools, particularly in the industrial sections of large cities. The information needed in planning appropriate learning experiences and choosing proper teaching materials is to be found in the analyses and summaries available through the combined data provided by a satisfactory program of diagnostic and achievement testing.

The increased emphasis upon non-directive techniques in counseling has put the spotlight on devices and means of pupil self-appraisal. Self-administering, self-scoring tests, which to a large degree provide for pupil self-appraisal, are coming into wide use to provide busy counselors sound bases for pupil and parent conferences.

Scates⁹ reports that "The many different purposes of measurement and instructions are being sensed more clearly, and instructions on assessment procedure are being emphasized more critically and with more insight. Teachers are giving more attention to the guidance function of tests and less to the matter of simply marking pupils. We seek ways in which education can be adapted to the needs and capacities of the individual pupil so as to aid him in developing a good adjustment to life as well as in mastering the more essential facts and skills."

A PROGRAM OF PUPIL SELF-APPRAISAL

"The student is best educated and guided by making him aware of his strengths and weaknesses, aiding him to remedy deficiencies in skills required for living in society, informing him of the traits required

⁹Scates, Douglas E., "The Changing Role of Paper and Pencil Tests in Evaluating Educational Outcomes," *High School Journal*, Vol. 34, April, 1951, pp. 109-113.

for success in his planned activities, and letting him prepare himself for those situations in which he has the greatest potential for success and personal satisfaction."¹⁰

Expenditures for testing in our schools are truly justified when test data function in the daily lives of our pupils aiding them in personal assessment of traits, aptitudes, interests, and achievement. Ross,¹¹ in his text on educational measurement, quotes a statement made by Thorndike in 1924, which is just as true in 1952. "The final justification for every test regime rests in Mary Jones and John Smith, and it, therefore, behooves all persons who are making and giving tests to take them into partnership as soon and as completely as possible."

Interpretation of test results in pupil conferences with emphasis upon self evaluation can serve as a fine stimulus for improvement in specific areas. The counselor must carefully guard against pupil discouragement over low spots in test profiles, constantly helping the pupil to see his comparative strength and of utmost importance his opportunities for growth and improvement.

Pupil motivation is a logical by-product of testing but maximum motivation will not come without specific planning on the part of the entire school staff. We are all familiar with the research evidence which shows so definitely that transfer of training is not automatic. Statistically significant transfer occurs when we teach for it, so it is with motivation of pupil learning as an outcome of our testing program, we must plan and teach for it if we are to enjoy its benefits.

Cook¹² describes the functions of measurement in the motivation of learning as follows: "Testing procedure properly conceived and executed places the control of the learning process within the educator's power as no other teaching device does. The functions of a motivating condition are inherent in the test situation and are important criteria in the evaluation of measurement procedure."

A PROGRAM OF PUBLIC RELATIONS

The many attacks upon schools with which we are all familiar follow patterns which are quite similar regardless of locale. Failure to teach the fundamentals seems to be the loudest and most frequent criticism and it is in turn the one which can be answered most effectively with properly reported data from a testing program.

We, as secondary school administrators, are notably ineffective in the area of public relations and in too many instances, we are sit-

¹⁰BULLETIN, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. 32, p. 68, December, 1948.

¹¹Ross, C. C., *Measurement in Today's Schools*, p. 518, Prentice Hall, 1949.

¹²Lindquist, E. F., Editor, and Cook, Walter W., Contributor, *Educational Measurement*, p. 28, American Council on Education, 1951.

ting by "While Rome Burns." We have the facts in our test data: why don't we bring them to the people in a forthright and convincing manner?

Abraham Lincoln once said "Public sentiment is everything; with public sentiment nothing can fail; without, nothing can succeed; consequently, he who molds public sentiment goes deeper than he who enacts statutes or promises decisions."¹³

Farley¹⁴ stated the problem in this manner, "Patrons wish to know *what* their children are being taught, *how* they are being taught, and *what results* are being achieved."

The presentation of test data to parents through the use of simple profiles with appropriate explanation will go a long way toward answering the question, "What results are being achieved in our schools?" It is our responsibility to tell the school's story to the people, not in our educational jargon but in language the parents understand, both graphical and verbal.

In summary, it is the opinion of the writer, based upon extensive experience, that the testing program which is suited to the needs of today's secondary schools is a program:

1. That is planned and utilized co-operatively by the entire staff.
2. That is centered in the all important area of improvement of teaching and guidance in the schools.
3. That is functional in the lives of our students.
4. That does a good job of selling the program of the schools to parents and to the community at large.

¹³Ross, C. C., *Measurement in Today's Schools*, p. 19, Prentice Hall, 1949.

¹⁴Farley, Belmont, *What to Tell the People About the Schools*, p. 19, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.

STUDENTS' LIKES AND DISLIKES

What students like and dislike in teachers—a recent study of almost 4,000 high-school students (1883 boys and 2022 girls)—is reported in "A Study of Some Opinions of High School Students With Regard to Teachers and Teaching" by Robert W. Richey and William H. Fox (Division of Research and Field Service, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, paper, 64 pp, 75¢). This report lists reasons given by students as to what they like and dislike in teachers. Some of the likes are: (1) have the ability to explain lessons clearly, (2) are willing to give extra help when needed, (3) have a sense of humor, (4) get along well with other teachers, (5) have a good knowledge of subject matter, (6) have a pleasant and happy disposition with a tendency to smile a lot, (7) have a pleasant speaking voice, (8) understand students' problems, (9) have no favorites, (10) dress attractively. Some reasons given for disliking teachers were: (1) having a bad temper, (2) being crabby and cross, (3) failing to control class, (4) failing to explain lessons, (5) lacking a sense of humor, (6) failing to give extra help when needed, and (7) having favorites among students.—*Illinois Education*.

Group XIV (Wednesday)—TOPIC: **How Can We Develop a Good Program for International Understanding?**

CHAIRMAN: *Jack Dawson*, Principal, Eastern High School, Middletown, Kentucky

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Harold E. Jones, Principal, Mount Clemens High School, Mount Clemens, Michigan

A. A. Thompson, Principal, Pierre Senior High School, Pierre, South Dakota

**HOW CAN WE DEVELOP A GOOD PROGRAM
FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING?**

HERBERT C. HAWK

THE TITLE of this discussion would seem to presuppose that there is no issue in American education between isolationism and internationalism. I sincerely hope this is true, for it is so very obvious today that isolationism, if we ever really practiced it, is definitely a thing of the past.

Whether we like it and whether we want it or not, there is no escaping the fact that our country today is irrevocably committed to a complicated involvement in world affairs. This is without any general desire on our part to meddle in the affairs of the rest of the world. Most of us, I suspect, would much prefer to escape the problems, the anxiety, and the tensions that this involvement entails, but there is no escaping the situation or our responsibility for the situation. Within the lifetime of most of us here, our country has been involved in two of the most destructive wars in the history of the world. In World War I, in spite of our strong isolationist background and feelings, we discovered that the interests of our country were inextricably involved in the happenings of Europe. In World War II, we discovered if we did not know it before, that our interests were also involved in the happenings of Asia. Today we know that no nation lives its life alone, but is dependent upon the labor, resources, and goods produced in all parts of the world. This involves people, ideas, communication, and transportation; in short, the whole realm of international trade and exchange. I am discovering today that my personal life, my welfare, and my future security are inextricably linked up with the life, the welfare, and the personal security of the Chinese coolie in the rice paddies of China; the refinery worker in Abadan; or the Russian peasant eking out his existence on the steppes of Central Asia. We have

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reached a stage in the evolution of the world where we should be discovering, if we have not known it before, that all mankind has a common destiny, that our personal or national interests and our welfare is interdependent with the common interests and the common welfare of all the rest of the world. We cannot escape this very fundamental fact or our responsibility in this situation, for added to the complications on the international scene is a terrible new power, which is sufficient to destroy our own very existence. Unless we discover, somehow, how to develop men and women with intelligence, with a will to do, ability to lead, who will grapple with and solve in some measure these problems of international living, we are headed for many anxious moments and many sleepless nights as we contemplate the power of mass destruction that man has within his grasp. The solution will be found primarily in the realm of the educational and the spiritual.

LAYING THE FOUNDATION

There is an old Chinese saying that there are five points on the compass. There are the usual ones—North, South, East, and West. The fifth point is the central point from which these directions start and all other points are in relation. This fifth point is very fundamental, for all the other points of the compass are where they are only as they are in relation to the center. It would seem that the starting point in improving a program of international understanding in the school would be to start with the individual student himself.

John W. Gardner of the Carnegie Corporation of New York City, in a very fine address before the North Central Association in Chicago a year ago, pointed out the very pertinent fact that self-knowledge is the first requirement for laying a broad foundation for citizen understanding of international affairs. As Mr. Gardner said, "One cannot arrive at sound and dependable judgments of others until he has some understanding of himself. To understand other nations, and our relation to them, we must first know ourselves—who we are, what we are, and how we got that way." Especially must we be able to put ourselves in the place of others and see their problems through their eyes. Call this what you may—life adjustment education, emotional hygiene, mental health, personality development, or just good education, it is basic to teaching international understanding. The first requirement of our schools, then, in developing a good program of international understanding, is to teach the student to understand himself, and to provide a climate that will help him develop into an intelligent, unselfish, emotionally stable, and mature adult who is able to understand others because he is able to understand himself. There is much sense in the old adage that "self-knowledge is the beginning of wisdom."

The second requirement, as pointed out by Mr. Gardner in this same address, is to recognize and have respect for cultural differences. Cultural differences are as old as mankind itself. There is no more mystery in the fact of cultural differences in the world than in the fact of individual differences within a cultural group. People have always faced certain problems of living, and have always met these problems in a variety of ways. We should recognize and respect these differences, not just tolerate them. Incidentally, I think we might give some thought to restudying our terminology in international relations. We speak of racial or religious toleration. I do not like the word "tolerate" very well. I do not want us just to "tolerate" those of other races or nationalities. I want us to recognize and respect others for what they are, and for us to understand why they are what they are. What we need to do is to understand these other cultures in terms of the needs, the fears, the hopes, and the aspirations that make them what they are. And the best place to start with this, is with the different culture groups in our own schools.

This means several things. First, the school must be democratic. Opportunities for participation in the life and activity of the school must not be in any way restricted to any racial or religious group or nationality. The "sense of belonging," so essential to the spirit and atmosphere of a good democratic school, must extend to all groups in the school. But more than this, the good school will take advantage of the background of experience and knowledge of the different cultural groups in the school to present to others this information which will enable them to better understand a particular culture group. This situation will vary with different communities. But even in my own rural area of the middle west where these minority groups do not exceed two to three per cent of the student body, we are finding a valuable resource to develop this recognition of and respect for cultural differences. In my own school, I am very proud of the work of our Spanish Club, which has in its membership all students of Spanish extraction, as well as those who have a major interest in the Spanish language. The community and assembly programs put on by this group have been most inspiring. I wish each of you could attend one of the annual Latin American community festivals held in our community when the Spanish Club of our school organizes a full evening program. All of the people of our community with a Spanish background are brought to the school for a night of fellowship with native music, dancing, and speaking in which the Spanish theme is dominant throughout. These resources in the school should not be overlooked. There may be other resources in the community, in addition.

A PART OF THE TOTAL PROGRAM OF THE SCHOOL

Any discussion of this topic must of necessity consider the curriculum. In fact, some people might think this is primarily a curriculum

problem. I cannot take this restricted point of view. International understanding must be one of the major objectives and an integral part of the total program of the school. I remember an interesting conversation a number of years ago with the headmaster of a boys' school in London. He commented upon an observation he had made of American education; namely, that whenever we meet up with an educational need, our first impulse is to set up a formal course and put it in the curriculum. I think we are inclined to do that and we oftentimes seem to conclude that this is all that is needed to solve the problem. A number of schools are offering a course in international relations. Most of those I know about are one semester courses, usually in the junior or senior year of high school. I see no objection to this, but I do think this is only one phase of the curricular program in developing international understanding. This is a task that must be shared by a wide range of subject matter fields on all grade levels. Geography, history, literature, economics, political science, psychology, and sociology should all make some contribution to this objective.

Here should be pointed out, however, that there is a growing need to rewrite many textbooks, develop new courses of study, new materials, and train teachers for a changing emphasis that has come about in the area of international understanding. World history should be really world history, not just entirely the European background to our civilization. The average American is abysmally ignorant today of the geography, the history, the sociology, the economics, the politics, and the literature of the Orient or even our neighbors to the south. Yet our very existence may depend in considerable measure upon how well we understand what is going on in these areas of the world. We still teach European languages in our school curriculum, yet the nation in the world that is probably most powerful, next to our own, speaks Russian. The tremendous problems of war and peace in the next few years must be resolved between the United States and the Russian people and their leaders, and we know and understand very little about them. Somehow, our Social Science courses must have our young people come to grips with the great problems that harass the peace of the world, and develop an understanding of the world we live in today. They must understand such vast problems as the pressure of population upon resources, the obstacles to a free flow of trade, the psychological and sociological reactions of certain national groups to each other, the background of hates and resentments that have been built up through the years, and the economic factors that enter into the very existence and survival of a nation. These are very fundamental.

I would suggest that we do more study of the United Nations. I am interested, not so much in the study of the structure and organization of the United Nations, as I am the problems that are being faced by the United Nations. These are the problems we have just

mentioned. The United Nations is dealing constantly with the problems of peoples and nations all over the world, not only in the highly organized areas, but in the backward and underprivileged areas as well. The world-minded citizen must have a deep concern for the well being of humanity, as was pointed out so well in the 1948 bulletin of the National Educational Association, entitled *Education for International Understanding*. The United Nations has a wealth of material available to schools for study in developing better international understanding.

In addition to the curricular, there is a wide range of projects and activities that can dramatize this objective and accomplish much in international understanding. There is almost no limit to what can be done in this area. Projects in letter writing, pen pals in other countries, UNESCO cultural exchanges, adoption of a school or city in another country, student and teacher exchange, study groups, Junior Red Cross portfolio exchanges, and good will projects of all kinds and description may be developed. Many students in my own high school will tell you with pride that at the entrance of the school grounds at Axotla, Mexico, is a beautiful friendship fountain that was built with the pennies contributed and earned by paper drives when they were little folk in our elementary schools. About Christmas time, the Student Council of our high school sent a basketball to a high school in Jyväskylä, Finland, with which our school is affiliated in a UNESCO cultural exchange. Through previous correspondence, the Council had found that basketballs were difficult to obtain in Finland, where this sport is growing in popularity.

Recently, one of our graduates of fifteen years ago told of a most pleasant experience in visiting two friends in Europe, one in France and one in Switzerland. These friendships started in a pen pal project in international understanding in our high school when she was a student.

HOW CAN THE TASK BE PERFORMED?

These are only suggestions. There is virtually no limit to the possibilities in this area. Students, teachers, townspeople, members of school clubs, civic clubs, and church groups may all have a part in these activities. The exchange of teachers and students seems to have special merit and holds unusual promise. This entire program should be expanded. Where we have hundreds now involved, we should have thousands. It will cost money, but not as much as war, and this is constructive.

But someone says, "That is all good enough, but tell us how you are going to teach international understanding and bring about peace in a world that is split right down the middle into two armed camps. The free world and the totalitarian world as far apart as the poles, ideologically, spiritually, economically, and politically?" This is truly the \$64 question, and the answer is not easy. But several facts

seem plain. We cannot continue indefinitely as two separate worlds in a state of armed tension. The conflict will be resolved either by war or by some mutually agreed upon rules of behaviour that will recognize our differences and still make it possible for us to live side by side in peace. We have succeeded reasonably well in this country in doing this. We are able to live side by side as Protestants or Catholics; as employers or employees; as Republicans or Democrats; as rich or poor with different ideas and goals in life, but yet with agreement upon certain rules of behaviour in order to live peaceably and orderly. There is some hope that this might come about in the world. It is our only hope, for the only other alternative is war.

I certainly wouldn't advocate appeasement. In my opinion, it is the obligation of teachers to be loyal to the democratic ideal and zealously indoctrinate pupils with a love of freedom and steadfast faith and belief in democracy. We must strive to make democracy work successfully in all areas of human welfare and endeavor. We must strive to develop character and teach the fundamental virtues of honesty and respect, integrity in assuming a public trust in a democracy. But in doing this, we cannot avoid a consideration of the false doctrines of totalitarianism. I think we must teach about Communism, and I am fully aware of the hazards and the risk of martyrdom that might come about to the individual teacher through this exercise of freedom. As a profession, we must stand together on this principle. As Commissioner McGrath said at a meeting of the National Education Association in 1949, "Unless Communism is discussed in the schools, there is no way to insure a full understanding of the difference between it and democracy."

In spite of our moments of pessimism, the initiative in making decisions is still held by the free world. Common people like ourselves can still determine what decisions will be made in Washington. I can think of no better remarks to end this talk than the concluding remarks of Congressman Walter H. Judd speaking at the American Association of School Administrators in Kansas City in February, 1948, when he said, "Who can do more to shape the views and attitudes of our people toward the expanding role our nation must assume than those who day in and day out have charge of the training of the minds and hearts of the nation's children? How great, indeed, is your opportunity, how terrible your responsibility."

VISUAL EDUCATION

The governor of Oklahoma has signed a \$200,000 appropriation bill for the purchase of visual materials in the next two years. Schools receiving money from this fund will have to match dollar for dollar. Thus, in effect, the bill represents \$400,000 worth of visual-aids purchases.—*The News Letter*.

HOW CAN WE DEVELOP A GOOD PROGRAM FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING?

HENRY E. HEIN

IN 1948 THE National Education Association issued a pamphlet entitled: *Education for International Understanding in American Schools—Suggestions and Recommendations*, which covered the field so thoroughly that little can be added in terms of procedures, teaching devices, etc. It formulated ten marks of the world-minded American:

1. The world-minded American realizes that civilization may be imperiled by another world war.
2. The world-minded American wants a world at peace in which liberty and justice are assured for all.
3. The world-minded American knows that nothing in human nature makes war inevitable.
4. The world-minded American believes that education can become a powerful force for achieving international understanding and world peace.
5. The world-minded American knows and understands how people in other lands live and recognizes the common humanity which underlies all differences of culture.
6. The world-minded American knows that unlimited national sovereignty is a threat to world peace and that nations must co-operate to achieve peace and human progress.
7. The world-minded American knows that modern technology holds promise of solving the problems of economic security and that international cooperation can contribute to the increase of well-being for all men.
8. The world-minded American has a deep concern for the well-being of humanity.
9. The world-minded American has a continuing interest in world affairs and he devotes himself seriously to the analysis of international problems with all the skill and judgment he can command.
10. The world-minded American acts to help bring about a world at peace in which liberty and justice are assured for all.

Since the publication of this pamphlet, we find ourselves embroiled in Korea and wondering just where we stand in relation to Iran, Egypt, Southeastern Asia, India, etc. Despite all our efforts toward world understanding and the peaceful solution of world problems, we do not know for what we are headed. To implement our further steps toward world understanding and peace, I suggest thought along the following lines:

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UNDERSTANDING OURSELVES

Basic to understanding the rest of the world is a thorough understanding of ourselves. What steps are we taking to achieve that understanding? History and economics courses are supposedly doing that. However, we are all painfully aware of the fact that our thinking today on domestic affairs is very much confused. How can we understand the reactions of other peoples toward us, reactions based upon their understanding of us, if we ourselves do not understand what we mean as a people? Therefore, fundamental to international understanding comes a thorough study of ourselves as of today, not merely as of the past. Certainly we must also know the past as a key to the present, but we must constantly keep abreast of current events in order to get a picture of what we may mean to the peoples of other nations. This means definite time assigned for the study and proper interpretation of current events of national significance; it means the work of selecting and organizing the current events material to be studied, a big job in itself. In connection with this, let me point out one of the characteristics of our American schools that is adding to the mental confusion of our student body. I have just suggested that current events become an important item in our school curriculum; I haven't suggested what is to be replaced by this study. Isn't that characteristic of what has happened time and again during... well, my own experience of almost fifty years as a teacher? To illustrate: two items have been added very recently to the curriculum in many high schools: driver education and an intense study of the evils and the prevention of the use of narcotics. What has been dropped to give time for these studies? Similarly, such items as these (to name just a few) have been added in recent years: conservation of natural resources, first aid, nutrition, child care, problems of democracy, personality development, vocational opportunities, orientation... why go on with the list? I cannot recall any major curriculum amputations. Haven't we been trying to pour five quarts into a gallon jug with the resultant spilling over? I mention this because it has a vital bearing on education for international understanding. I am certain that we are all agreed on the vital importance of the teaching of such understanding. The NEA pamphlet referred to gives excellent suggestions for lessons in that field, but nowhere is there a suggestion that the school day be lengthened or that the number of school days be increased or that this or that or the other subject be deleted from the curriculum. The resultant, I fear, is exactly what it has been with the introduction of other "must" subjects. The "must" subject does not get adequate attention and the other subjects are squeezed more and more, with the net result of a hodge-podge of undigested material leading to increased confusion in the minds of our pupils.

SCHOOL IS NOT BASIC FORCE

Another point that I wish to emphasize is that it is high time for the teachers of America to disavow the very flattering assumption in the minds of the general public that the school is the basic force in the education of our children. To the family, the church, and the street, must be added the radio, television, newspapers and magazines, and libraries in universal use, leaving the school as merely one agency in the education of our children. Unless the teachers of American can work out a better form of co-operation between the school and all the other agencies that mold the minds of our children, we are merely adding to the general confusion. Furthermore, events come too quickly for us to depend upon the proper education of our children to save the day. Matters that affect the very life of the community are being decided day by day by the adults, unaffected by what the children are learning in classrooms today. I do not belittle the importance of what we are teaching the children, but life is moving too rapidly for us to depend upon that. It is therefore highly important that adult education (already begun in various parts of our country) be rapidly increased, extended and intensified, so that the questions to be decided today will be decided more intelligently.

In a recent Gallup poll, only 12% of the adult public could answer the following six questions correctly:

1. Will you tell me where Manchuria is?
2. Will you tell me where Formosa is?
3. Will you tell me what is meant when people refer to the 38th parallel?
4. Will you tell me what is meant by the term: Atlantic Pact?
5. Will you tell me who Chiang Kai-shek is?
6. Will you tell me who Marshall Tito is?

Having children discuss these questions in class will affect very slightly adult thought and action in relations to the problems involved. A better-informed adult public will mean a greater correlation of the total educational environment of our children. The classroom teacher will not be frustrated by the influences to which our children are subjected in their homes and in the adult community.

INTENSE NATIONAL SPIRIT AN OBSTACLE TO WORLD UNITY

I believe we are fairly well agreed that the chief obstacle to a United Nations, or any other form of world cooperation, is the intense national spirit that has been built up during the past three centuries. To offset this, our history and geography courses should be organized more and more on a regional basis than on a national basis. American history should be taught as Western Hemisphere history rather than just United States history. If our adults, as well as our boys and girls, learn from their youngest years how many similarities there are in the development of the various nations of the Western Hemisphere,

if they learn the necessity for inter-American co-operation, a greater realization of the value of world unity will be achieved. Similarly in geography, in its products, resources, *etc.*, there is not such a great difference between Canada and the United States, or between northern Mexico and southwest United States, or between Florida and Cuba, or between the United States and Argentina, that makes it impossible to present large areas of the world's surface for study transcending national boundaries. In other words, children can be made aware that political boundary lines are not the determining factor in the development of the characteristics of people; the way they live, *etc.* Regional history and regional geography would help to weaken this strong nationalistic sense that has been the bane of every previous attempt to build up world understanding, and that will be the death of our present attempt unless it can be curbed. I have given the Western Hemisphere as an example. Of course the idea that I am trying to emphasize transcends continents and hemispheres.

SEEMINGLY ANOMALOUS OBJECTIVES

One of the greatest difficulties that confronts the teacher is that he is torn between two objectives that seemingly oppose each other: he wishes to develop in his students a keen interest in other peoples, an appreciation of their accomplishments, an understanding of their way of life, and a realization that they are much more like him than they are different from him. The avowed purpose of all this is to bring about a world of mutual understanding and peace. On the other hand, the same teacher feels that he must develop in his students a keen sense of the importance of his own nation, a readiness to defend it against all other nations, and a willingness to die for its ideals. If he is one hundred per cent successful in teaching in terms of universal peace, he may find that he has produced a group of conscientious objectors who will refuse to fight in defense of their country. I can remember before the first World War when Peace Sundays were announced by President Taft, when the Hague Tribunal was to adjudicate differences between countries, and when we teachers were urged to use all our energies to teach our pupils the blessings of peace and the obligation to work for a peaceful world. I know how worried I became when the first World War broke out, wondering whether I had been too successful with the boys I had taught to become the emissaries of peace. The very fact that we have to keep in mind Napoleon's dictum: "Trust in God, but keep your powder dry," is bound to interfere with effective teaching for a United Nations world. In the Thirties, in our high school, our faculty worked for four years on a Peace Syllabus. Our City Superintendent thought so highly of this syllabus that he had it distributed at the NEA convention in New York City. Then came Pearl Harbor! So what!

Unless through UNESCO or other agencies we can develop a universal educational program for peace, we shall find it most dif-

difficult to get complete support to a peace campaign in our schools. While we have Russia and her satellites picturing us to their youth as an enemy and as a people with a most vicious form of life, developing hatred against us, how can we as teachers be enthusiastic in the teaching of peace? Dean Inge very aptly states, "It is useless for the sheep to pass resolutions in favor of vegetarianism so long as the wolf remains of a different opinion." Will there not be, in the minds of many teachers, the feeling that nothing should be done that will make it more difficult for our government to get the necessary support for military defense purposes?

SOCIAL ENGINEERING

Now I wish to suggest something that has not received much, if any, attention. When the mental discipline theory of education was fundamental in our educational thinking, a general high school education was considered basic to the future career of the individual. The habits of thinking, study, *etc.*, developed in this general education could be transferred to whatever field of activity the student later chose. With the abandonment of the disciplinary theory came a greater emphasis on fields of study directly connected with future activities. The great development of vocational education is partly the result of this. We see it also in the greater attention paid to courses in science. Our people have become completely sold on the importance of physical, chemical and biological sciences. In fact, our scientific engineering has far outstripped our social engineering. We seem to have reached a point where like Frankenstein we have created a monster that we do not know how to control. What marvels the scientists have unfolded for us! What forces they have unleashed and harnessed to applications that make us almost godlike in our power! And yet to what monstrous purposes these natural forces have been applied! The English philosopher, Dr. Joad, summarizes it for us as follows: "Science has given us powers fit for the gods; yet we bring to their use the mentality of school boys and savages. The superman made the airplane, but the ape has gotten hold of it." Yes... bigger and faster airplanes to drop more and bigger bombs more rapidly on defenseless citizens; a greater knowledge of germs to make possible the wiping out of civil populations more quickly; atomic energy to blast entire cities to perdition. No one can object to the call for more and more scientists; however, rarely is a voice heard pleading for more social engineers. In our own city we have two special science high schools and a technical high school, to which admission may be gained only by students with the very highest I. Q's, who pass a selective entrance examination. There is not one similarly selective high school in the great city of New York for students who might be prepared to become the outstanding students in college courses along social engineering lines. Students who might become the great social engineers are frequently, because of parental vanity, siphoned off into these technical high schools.

In February 1944, on my motion, the New York City High-School Principals Association passed the following resolution:

The time has passed when we of the United States of America can rely on the compelling weight of our natural resources and the force of our native wit and shrewdness, as well as our productive skill, to maintain ourselves in global competition. We are no longer self-sufficient and we must more than ever engage in an intense world competition in which thorough knowledge and understanding of the world and its people are essential if we are to hold our place.

If this is true, it must have a profound influence upon our schools. They must create the proper environment for this growth of a citizenry that will measure up to the requirements. Our elementary schools must provide opportunity for the development of an awareness of the entire world, now so much shrunken in time-space, an awareness of such nature as to stimulate an overwhelming interest in all of it. Our junior high school must provide opportunity for the growth of more intensive and extensive knowledge of the world and its people than ever before. Our senior high school must provide opportunity for all students to develop greater understanding of the inter-relation of the material and spiritual forces that exert their influence on us and other peoples. The high school must, in addition, provide opportunity for the development and training of those who will come into direct contact with these forces, who will be workers in fields and leaders of movements most directly concerned with the interplay of those forces. Steps should be taken for the selection of those adolescents most fitted by interest and intelligence for such work and leadership and for the formulation of a course of study for them likely to serve most effectively to bring about success in such work and leadership.

There are two fields in which high school graduates can function in foreign service; the field in which there is an interplay of political, social and economic forces among nations, and the other field which concerns itself with commercial relations in foreign trade. The high schools can prepare their graduates for collegiate work that will be essential to carry on this political, social and economic activity. They can establish also a curriculum that will prepare their graduates to function in the field of foreign trade.

It is recommended, therefore, that

1. Curriculum modification be made, as soon as practicable, in all subjects in all our schools (elementary, junior high, senior and vocational high schools) to develop a greater world consciousness in all our students.
2. High schools offering a commercial diploma should, where possible, have a definite course to prepare selected students to function efficiently in the field of foreign trade.
3. A course of study should be introduced in one or more selected high schools of the city, or in one selected school in each borough, to prepare students for college work whose objective is leadership in the field of political, social and economic relations with the other nations of the world.

This resolution was passed unanimously; however, nothing has been done to implement it. The whole country knows about the Westinghouse search for talent in science. Our magazines, newspapers, *etc.*, are constantly appealing along similar lines. Is it not high time that steps be taken to arouse country-wide interest in the establishment of courses in our high schools for those pupils particularly gifted for careers in the field of foreign affairs: governmental, political, industrial, commercial? Do not let us belittle the commercial side of the

picture; the trader has always been a great influence in the spread of knowledge of foreign peoples. He arouses an interest in his own people amongst those with whom he does business and he brings back factual knowledge and understanding of the foreigners with whom he trades.

I suppose people have always considered their particular age as a crucial one. It is certainly crucial for the people living in it. However, I am convinced that right now we are in the most crucial period of our history. The question of the life or death of the hope of the United Nations hangs in the balance. What we know as "The American Way of Life" is challenged. World ideals of democracy are in danger. And yet, as far as the great mass of our people are concerned, very little is being done about it. We cannot sit back and comfort ourselves with the thought, "Why worry—everything will come out all right." I am reminded of Rastus Brown, who was busily working a plot of land given him by the church, when the parson stopped by. "Rastus," said the parson, "It is wonderful what the Lord and man can do with a piece of ground." To which Rastus replied, "Dat's right, but yuh shudda seen this when the Lord had it alone!"

We have been too much inclined to let things drift—to read the headlines and to let it go at that. The newspapers give the people what they want. Well...most newspapers spend more space on sporting news than they do on foreign affairs. Unless we can arouse the people of this country to the importance of understanding the interdependence of the world and our relationship to other peoples, we shall find that we are repeating the story of ancient Rome. This is not merely something for the leaders of our country to consider; it is of vital importance to every individual.

A FILMSTRIP ON THE REPORT CARD

The Report Card Comes Home, second in a series of filmstrips interpreting the school program to parents, has been produced and released by the Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau of Wayne University. The part that parents can and should play in making the school's reporting system a contribution to the pupil's classroom progress is highlighted. Produced primarily for use with parents, the filmstrip is unusually effective in helping teachers to crystalize their thinking relative to the purpose and procedures of school reporting. Other filmstrips include: *Adventure for Defense*, taken at an armed services induction center and at an Army reception center with full co-operation of the United States military services; and *How Pupils and Teachers Plan Together*, for use with in-service and pre-service teachers. These filmstrips may be purchased for \$3.50 each, including discussion guide, from the Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau, Wayne University, Detroit 1, Michigan.

Group XV (Wednesday)—TOPIC: What Programs of Civil Defense are Needed in our Schools?

CHAIRMAN: Harry J. Moore, Assistant Superintendent, High School, Long Beach Public Schools, Long Beach, California

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Varian M. Shea, District Superintendent of High Schools, District 4, Lindblom High School, Chicago, Illinois

C. F. Newell, Principal, Tuscaloosa Senior High School, Tuscaloosa, Alabama

**WHAT PROGRAMS OF CIVIL DEFENSE ARE
NEEDED IN OUR SCHOOLS?**

MARY E. MEADE

AS I WRITE THIS, the memory of our easy-going, ostrich-like optimism of December, 1941, comes back to my mind, and, with equal force, the shattering of that optimism by the attack on Pearl Harbor, on the "day that will live in infamy," to quote President Roosevelt. Much has happened since then, but we have been astounded to read of the unwillingness of people in positions of prominence to face the facts and be prepared. One of the advantages of studying history is to learn how to avoid errors made in the past, and we can certainly spend time now profiting by those mistakes. The number one problem in Civil Defense is the alerting of the public and the recruitment of volunteers. Elaborate machinery is worth little if there are too few people to operate it.

With that as a preamble, we can agree that there are two major phases in a civil defense program in our schools: a long range preparation and the immediate preparation. I should like to spend most of my time on the first aspect since it is applicable to all parts of the country, all types of school and all sizes of organization. As in every other problem of education, our first task is training in character. Our emphases must be on the development of a sense of responsibility among our young people and the willingness to share with others and work for others—a true community spirit. The Federal Civil Defense Administration underlines that point in its *Interim Civil Defense Instructions for Schools and Colleges*, which says, "Civil defense can

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have positive, constructive values to our entire citizenship, since it is everybody's business." "The basic concept of the national plan for civil defense is self-reliance."¹

There is nothing new about this suggestion, and yet, all educators are stressing the need for a recognition of moral and spiritual values in education. The big question is, how? I am sure of one thing—these character traits are not just caught like the measles—they must be taught, and emphasized by everyone on the staff. Everyone must believe in them, practice them, and take every opportunity to preach them. Assembly exercises, literature, history, (in fact, all subjects) student discussion groups and active student government organization can contribute their part in explaining and interpreting these positive, constructive values. The principal can use his influence to make clear to all the importance of ethics and morality in school activities.

It is easier to describe the emphases in subject matter that should be included in the schools' programs of civil defense. As we might expect, the Social Studies departments have an exceptionally heavy burden. They must teach the fundamentals of United States democracy, its traditions, ideals, responsibilities, and the blessings of liberty which have been transmitted to us to improve and pass on to our posterity. These facts must be presented in a dramatic, interesting way. Gone are the days when we worried so much about developing suspended judgment in our classes that we taught little that was positive; no longer can we meaningfully smile when we refer to Fourth of July orators. These young people must be inspired to love their country; some of them may have to die for it and they should understand to the fullest, the American way of life. Such an understanding is the best answer to the communist propaganda, for they will know our meanings of words such as: freedom, democracy, freedom of speech, freedom of religion, and right to vote. The pupils must appreciate the threats to this American way of life, beginning with the apathy of our own citizenry, and continuing to the Russian system with all its injustices and inhumanity. This is a large order, for it includes the material in World History and European History, in addition to propaganda analysis and current events. We shall have to omit some of the assemblies of the French Revolution, or the battles of the Napoleonic War or the revolutions of 1830, but we must teach our young people the methods of the communists, their devilishly clever infiltration techniques, and the menace they present to democracy everywhere. The high school student today is alert to these things, and in some ways, more exposed to pressures and tensions than his teachers. He should be made aware

¹Federal Civil Defense Administration *Interim Civil Defense Instructions for School and Colleges* Sup't of Documents, U. S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington D.C. August 1951—30 cents p. V, 1.

of the name-calling, the glittering generality, or the big lie devices,² and how to answer the challenge such procedures present. The new teaching methods such as committee and discussion techniques, audio-visual aids, and trips can be used to help in this subject matter emphasis.

The high school pupil needs to know the origin, organization, ideals and work of the U. N., especially as it pertains to world peace. The traditional attachment to an isolation policy, and the weaknesses and failures of the U. N. make this task one to test the skill of the present day teacher. The stirring address of Gen. Romulo at the 1951 Convention of the A. A. S. A. will raise the spirits of anyone who may doubt the efficacy of the U. N.³ There is an enormous amount of material distributed by the U. N., and UNESCO and others which schools may acquire to assist in this work.⁴

In addition to these fundamental concepts of democracy and world peace and threats to them, the high school student has many opportunities to acquire other knowledge that will be valuable for civil defense. Pupils should take the course in First Aid; girls may become proficient in Home Nursing. The science classes can seize the opportunity to teach the essentials of the atom bomb and the defense against it. Every teacher should have a First Aid certificate and should be familiar with the details on the atom bomb. There are booklets written in simple language that are useful for presenting this material, for examples—those put out by the *New York Times*⁵ and the Metropolitan School Study Council.⁶ Courses in safety, nutrition, health education include units on an atom bomb attack. Schools can co-operate with organizations such as the Civil Air Patrol which train their members in activities such as airplane spotting which can be of great service in civil defense.

Every boy in high school is looking forward to serving his country as a member of the armed forces. For these especially, there should be an improvement in our health services including medical examinations, correction of remedial defects and a more thorough physical education and physical fitness program. A special guidance program can help them in the choice of courses on mathematics, science, and industrial arts as a preparation for military life. They should be impressed with the value of vocabulary building, reading ability, writing of simple correct English and the ability to speak clearly. The first screening they pass through in the armed forces is a test containing many of the above items. The Board of Regents of the State of New

²Board of Education, N.Y.C. *Strengthening Democracy* Oct. 1951 "Tools for Detecting Communist Propaganda" by Jack Estrin, p. 4ff.

³Amer. Assn. of School Administrators *Schools to Keep Us Free*, Official Report of 77th Annual Convention, 1951. "The United Nations and the Far Eastern Crisis" by Gen. Carlos P. Romulo, p. 51ff.

⁴Board of Education, N.Y.C. *Curriculum and Materials*, Nov. 1951 p. 9ff.

⁵Lawrence, Wm. L. *We Are Not Helpless*, *New York Times*, Aug. 1950—10 cents.

⁶Metropolitan School Study Council, 525 W. 120 St., New York, 27. *Let's Face It*, 1951.

York have pledged every effort properly to prepare these young people for service to their country.⁷

Many girls will probably be interested in serving their country, too. They should be made aware of the possibilities and the emphasis placed by the authorities on their high school record.

I should like to make a few points on the immediate program for Civil Defense in our schools. It is taken for granted that the schools will co-operate with the local, state, and Federal authorities in all matters pertaining to Civil Defense. In our area, school buildings have been prepared as centers for distributing supplies to those made homeless by a bombing attack, or as auxiliary hospitals if needed. The schools can distribute information by poster or placard and the pupils can instruct their parents and neighbors on procedures in case of an attack. In the recent city-wide drill in New York City (a great success) the schools were instrumental in distributing many of the instructions. The *New York Herald Tribune* of December 2, 1951, carried a story to the effect that the Federal Civil Defense Administration is distributing 3,000,000 copies of a 16-page illustrated booklet, "Bert the Turtle Says Duck and Cover" to school children to teach them how to act in the event of atomic bombing.

In New York City as, I assume, in other parts of the country, pupils in all schools have been drilled in the "Take Cover" and "Shelter Area" drills.⁸ The first envisages a no warning attack when the children are taught to get under the desks instantly. The second presupposes an 8-minute warning so that pupils have time to get to the shelter areas previously chosen as the most safe. There is a plan being worked out by which the pupils will have "dog tags" to wear bearing their names and addresses.

These measures have met resistance in some areas. Many people feel that some of these criticisms emanate from groups suspected of subversive activities. My experience in New York City schools would indicate that pupils understand the reasons for these drills and "take them in their stride." The Superintendent of Schools has explained to the schools and to the press the reasons for these measures. The Parent-Teacher Associations were included in these educational measures, and, in some cases, they assisted the school authorities in defense activities. Unless there is a group bent on causing trouble, understanding of the reasons for the drills and "dog tags" removes the opposition.

As I said at the beginning, the big problem is apathy—the traditional rationalization of the lazy man, "Everything will be all right." Schools can fight that point of view when it shows up in the classrooms, and they can inspire the pupils to become missionaries in recruiting volunteers.

⁷Wilson, Lewis A. *Letter to School Superintendents*, Sept. 1951.

⁸Copies of detailed directions for such drills in Washington Irving High School may be obtained from the writer.

Even the most liberal skeptic who wants to believe that Russia really wants peace must have been shaken by the disclosures of spying and infiltration in our government and the pathetic disillusionment of ex-members and fellow travellers. We are faced not by theories but by hard facts and we must act before it is too late. Chancellor John P. Meyers of the University of the State of New York, at the 85th convocation of the Regents, stated our task clearly and distinctly. May I close with his inspiring plea?

Freedom is not free; it must constantly be defended and cared for lest we lose it. That is the price we pay for it. We must interpret for our children the initiative, the courage, and the faith of the founding fathers. We must root deeply in their hearts faith in the unimpeachable dignity of the individual, in the unquenchable spirit of free man.⁹

WHAT PROGRAMS OF CIVIL DEFENSE ARE NEEDED IN OUR SCHOOLS?

L. W. HUBER

I DO NOT pose as an authority on the subject of civil defense. Like many others, I am just helping to pioneer an unknown, unpredictable trail. It seems, however, that a new era is upon us, and that some of us must look into the crystal ball of the future and predict and plan to meet exigencies which have never existed before. Coming from Columbus, Ohio, will naturally color what I have to say. Our city is a mid-western, inland city of about 400,000 population, so our concerns vary from those of a coastal city.

The dangers which demand civil defense consideration and planning are here to stay during all of future civilized history. Either we must avoid the terrible potential disasters, or we may slip into a future of uncivilized existence. Therefore, we must go about the business of civil defense and education for a truly civilized world in a calm, thoughtful, calculated way. The potential danger will remain and only right thinking and right attitudes can keep a catastrophic situation from developing. As I see it, we must arrive at and maintain a correct and delicate balance in the minds of our people between fear and confidence. We must recognize the full, dreadful consequences of modern warfare and at the same time maintain faith in the possibility of avoiding such wars and their consequences. We must also maintain a studied confidence that we can cope with the problems if they do come. Our attitudes must be constructive and optimistic.

⁹University of the State of N. Y. *Bulletin of the Schools*, Albany, Nov. 1951, p. 62.

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Men have thought, through the ages, that they had just about met the ultimate in warfare. When the horse and chariot were first used against the traditional foot soldier, the ancients despaired. Then came throwing machines and a new era had dawned. People had to readjust their thinking and their modes of construction. When gunpowder was invented the whole social order was rocked again and some men were pessimistic concerning the future. Then came high explosives and it seemed that the whole world trembled with their power in the First World War. The airplane followed closely and a confused world found that we lived in an age when both the civilian and the soldier shared the new terrifying danger. People wondered if there could be effective defense. And now comes the era of atomic power and the atomic bomb—an era for more potential good or evil than man has ever seen. We are confused, as men through the ages have been confused when a new power has been unleashed. With the modern world the confusion and frustration reaches into every home because none of us are out of its reach. Before I go on, however, I should like to mention two other potential dangers in our world where part of the people do not have moral and ethical restraints. They are poison gas and germ warfare. I shall mention these again later.

Atomic power is almost beyond comprehension, but there are greater forces to be considered. Deep religious faith, moral courage to do what one knows is right, confidence in one's fellowman and optimism toward an intelligent, understanding world: these are more potent than atomic energy. It is not enough, though, to pay lip-service to these lofty ideas, but it is rather for us to knuckle down, recognize the potential dangers, prepare our defenses and then work diligently to bring about better relations among nations of men.

INITIAL STEPS

What did we of the Public Schools think necessary to do about a program of Civil Defense in Columbus, Ohio? We thought we must be prepared to meet an emergency, if it comes, and we think that we must remain prepared through a continuous program. From Superintendent N. G. Fawcett's Advisory Council, made up of both teachers and administrators, a committee of three was named to spearhead a study of the problem with a Civil Defense Committee composed of teachers, administrators, and a head custodian. This Civil Defense Committee was drawn from all educational levels and represented the various types of buildings and different locations across the city.

We outlined problems about which we could be thinking before the first meeting. We then decided upon what our points of consideration were to be. After conferring individually with others in our local situations and after due study of the problems, we crystallized our thoughts in writing on the topics previously planned. As chairman of the committee, I then took these statements and co-ordinated our

ideas with accepted Civil Defense procedures. The resultant script was presented to the Columbus and Franklin County Civil Defense Co-ordinator and was approved. We then incorporated it into a mimeographed, spiral-bound, attractive five and one-half by eight and one-half inch booklet. A proportionate number of these booklets were given to each principal. These were used as a city-wide guide for the schools.

In our booklet we tried to point out the reasons for preparedness, with a balancing tone of confidence. We set up general standard procedures, leaving specific problems to the local principal and his staff. We called for "safe areas" and "safety drills," and tried to project the problems to be considered in following protective procedures. With complete planning and proper drill we hope to avoid confusion and panic as well as minimize the loss of life in case of a raid. We also dwell on caring effectively for the injured. Duties of the entire building staff are outlined and the matter of parental information and co-operation is considered. Attitudes for the future in which we must live and work are also presented. Time nor space permit going into full detail.

When the booklet was published each principal was asked by Superintendent Fawcett to first acquaint his school staff with the problems and procedures, then to consider them with the Parent-Teacher Association and finally present the whole idea to the pupils. After these things were done, individual room or home-room drills were held and later complete building drills were carried out. We are to have at least one safety drill each month.

Some hints taken from our experiences would include the designation of each safety station painted on the wall above the center of the station. This can be a Civil Defense insignia painted on tagboard or painted directly on the wall. It contains "CD" and either the letters of the alphabet or numbers in a different color to designate the station. We found it advantageous to take individual rooms or limited numbers of rooms out to practice the first time. We believe in absolute quiet unless, when in actual situations, time-consuming activities are needed. Because of the many problems concerning the local signal systems, we have generally accepted a system of whistles and advise painting them red and hanging them securely at certain heights. Hospital areas can also be designated, with more mature pupil assistants taking responsibilities.

IMPLEMENTATION

One can hardly over-estimate the importance of calm educational procedures which ought to be used and emotional safeguards which ought to be taken. Nor should one under-estimate the importance of a complete understanding between school and parents on what the school expects to do and what it expects in way of parental co-operation.

Some communities are using direct methods of teaching the facts concerning the new era in which we live and in teaching the methods of protection against atomic attack. That is, they use the printed literature such as *Survival Under Atomic Attack* in the classroom as a textbook at certain grade levels. Some have gone into rather extensive programs of Red Cross training. Other communities are making the literature available to the teachers and asking that the facts be presented in the established courses such as science, health and social science. Surely pupils should realize the potential dangers and should be well acquainted with all procedures for protection. They also need to gain a sense of responsibility in this whole matter of defense, both civil and military.

School systems or individual schools may plan well for the protection of the children within their buildings, but still have panic and utter confusion in the case of an emergency if the parents of the children do not know what those plans are. Telephone lines could be jammed or the buildings could be over-run by panic stricken parents if the schools have failed to get across to parents what procedures the schools would follow. Parents need to feel confident that their children will receive every protection and help humanly possible. There are a number of methods used in disseminating the information. There may be school publications which could carry the information. Some larger city systems have radio or television outlets. In other cases, a bulletin from the local principal or teacher may be the best method.

In the final analysis each individual teacher will be the key to the way his pupils will react. Calm, confident leadership is important. A teacher and his pupils can either rise to meet the occasion or they can be overcome by panic. Each teacher ought to realize the responsibility which is his. If he does, I have no doubt about his teaching protective procedures and analytical data.

Our schools are reporting very satisfactory results on their preparations and safety drills to date. Specific and thorough planning seems to be paying off. We have before us, however, a long-range and continuous problem of educating all pupils as they come along in our schools. We must teach the facts of the atomic era: We must point out the true dangers of the atomic bomb and must teach pupils how to escape its dangers.

We are told that it is quite likely that atomic raids will come at night so planes can come in under the cover of darkness. If such is the case, teachers must know what their responsibilities are as servants of the public. Our schools may become service centers: places of refuge, temporary hospital quarters, or centers where the homeless of the community are fed. Each principal should have pretty distinct plans how these functions could be carried out; and teachers, cafeteria helpers, and janitors should realize that they are to report for certain duties.

Unless dangers are imminent, teachers and pupils will be indifferent toward being prepared in first-aid procedures. It is the job of the administrators to alert them to their responsibilities. We have said that at least one third of our teachers ought to be trained in first-aid work. On junior high level some pupils can be certified and on senior high level surely many should be certified in first-aid work. Not only should we think of first-aid certification, but we should also have a goodly number of the staff proficient in the detailed Civil Defense problems.

In Columbus, we have not attacked the problem of personal identifications. Various identifications have been used by cities such as metal tags, fingerprints, identification cards, or names on all underclothing printed with indelible ink.

There are some in positions of leadership who are concerned about the inroads communism is making in the Orient. They feel that if the Oriental mind becomes determined in its communist efforts, there will be a new and greater threat to world peace. A billion people would be involved. That is half of the people of the world. Communism is a religion and so would supplant Oriental religions. The Communists are going at their job with a missionary spirit. Are we doing as much, or are we even taking our defense measures seriously? Maybe we should consider the contention that our best defense might be a spiritual offense. Surely our ideology is far superior to communism.

There is but one great hope to maintain a civilized world. We must educate all people, everywhere, concerning the disastrous effects of men matching wits with power, destruction, might. We must help initiate a new era, in which intelligence, faith, courage, moral stamina and optimism will be greater than man-made tools of destruction. We must prove that the creating genius is greater than the Frankenstein he has invented.

IN THE FIELD OF WORLD AFFAIRS

The U. S. Department of State has prepared a series of background summaries dealing with the problems of world affairs. These *Background* series are published in pamphlet form from time to time. Informative and brief, they give many of the facts behind the international news. By sketching in the *background* of the problems and situations affecting U. S. foreign policy, they bring an added perspective to the daily headlines. In the swift pace of present-day world affairs, this series offers a means of keeping accurately informed on international issues. You can get a world-affairs packet containing eleven *Background* issues from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., for \$1. Or they may be purchased separately. A 25 per cent discount is given on any publication ordered in a quantity of 100 or more and sent to the same address. If you wish to be notified when future *Background* publications are issued, just write to the Superintendent of Documents. These pamphlets vary from 4 to 12 pages in size.

Group XVI (Wednesday)—TOPIC: What Scheduling Practices Have Become Most Effective in Today's School?

CHAIRMAN: *Frederic T. Shipp*, Professor of Education, San Francisco State College, San Francisco, California

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

E. F. Stabler, Principal, Clairton Senior High School, Clairton, Pennsylvania

Marshall E. Foster, Jr., Principal, Isaac Litton High School, Nashville, Tennessee

WHAT SCHEDULING PRACTICES HAVE BECOME
MOST EFFECTIVE IN TODAY'S SCHOOL?

LEMUEL R. JOHNSTON

THIS is a brief outline of practices used in scheduling classes in the secondary school. This entire process is to appear in book form in the near future. All rights are reserved by the publisher. The first step is to work out a *code* for all subjects offered in your school. It is an absolute necessity. Students register in terms of the code as shown in the program of studies; for example, Math VI would represent practical geometry.

A. *Teacher Assignment Sheet*

After registration is complete, an assignment sheet is made on the basis of registration for the entire school. The number of teaching sections in each subject is determined. At this time, the teachers who will handle the various sections are determined—but who will be in the classes or when those classes will occur is not decided until later. What is decided, for instance, is that Miss Jones will teach one section of ninth-grade (College Preparatory) English, one class in Modern History, and two classes of tenth-grade English (General).

B. *Typing of tickets*

When the above is finished, a typist prepares "tickets" for each class section. These are the small tickets used in the master schedule. They must fit perfectly in the small pockets.

C. *Master Schedule Material*

Most school people are familiar with the Dorothy Seating Plans (shown in J. L. Hammett catalog No. 87, page 11). The master schedule which I use is the same type of arrangement, much larger, made of

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ordinary oilcloth. For my purposes, I have a roll with 9 horizontal rows of pockets. Each horizontal row has 40 pockets. All subjects which meet daily are shown on this "roll."

D. Large Schedule Cards

Those subjects, usually referred to as minors, which meet less than five times per week are recorded on large cards (about $9\frac{1}{4}" \times 13\frac{3}{4}"$), ruled, so as to carry the teaching assignments for two teachers. In very brief form, the following steps are taken in building the schedule:

1. Sorting of registration cards by class and curriculum and an analysis of each class shown on paper. This is done by my assistant.
2. Formation of teaching groups. I work with one whole class at a time, starting with the ninth grade and working through the twelfth. This is the basic step in building the schedule.
3. Assignment of group number to each "package" (teaching group). An analysis card is placed on top of each package.
4. Analysis of each "package" or teaching section by an assistant.
5. When all teaching groups in a given grade have been analyzed, a schedule is designed to meet the requirements of each group. I usually sketch out on newsprint a tentative schedule which will take care of all the requirements shown on the analysis card.

When the tentative schedule for the group in question suits me, I transfer the information from the newsprint to the right-hand side of the analysis card. Then I transfer the solid subjects to the master schedule and the minor subjects to the large cards referred to under "D". In making the transfer, I write the group number and the number of pupils assigned to the class on one of the little "tickets" referred to in "B" above and place the ticket opposite the proper period and underneath the proper teacher's name on the master schedule. When this has been done for all four classes, the schedule, so far as the principal is concerned, is complete.

You will observe that, because a schedule is designed for each teaching group, there is no reason for a conflict sheet. I have never made one in my life. You will also see that my assistant can take over and write the pupils' schedules without having to determine actually what each schedule is to be. That, for all pupils, has already been determined in the process I have used. For example, when the assistant picks up group 6 and sees that it is a freshman group and, on the right-hand side of the card, English I is shown for the second period, all she has to do is to find the card for English I with a "6" on it. She can see that it is assigned to Room 210 and she writes on the pupil's card the information which she has before her; i.e. the pupil is assigned to Miss Jones, for English I, in Room 210, in Period 2. This process is repeated until all of the subjects listed on the right-hand side of the analysis card are recorded on all pupils' cards.

The following materials are either helpful or essential to the building of the schedule by the process outlined on the accompanying sheets:

1. *Registration Plan Card.* This is used in the home room by pupils for planning their studies from year-to-year. It has no relationship to building the schedule.
2. *Registration Card.* This is used in the schedule building. A white card is used for girls and a salmon colored one for boys. This card is extremely important. It is the instrument by which a wide range of possible student selections can be focused in a very small space, in a uniform manner. It greatly facilitates accurate analysis of the entire school's registration and lends itself easily to rapid handling. In order to use this card, subjects must be coded.
3. *Analysis Card.* This is used for each group of pupils when teaching sections are formed. It is used for analyzing the registration of all of the pupils to which it refers. A schedule is designed for the actual requirements as shown on this card.

Group X (Wednesday)—TOPIC: What Student Personnel Services in the Secondary School?

CHAIRMAN: *Winston Nelson*, Principal, Pomona High School, Pomona, California

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

F. R. Born, Principal, Central High School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

John E. Codwell, Principal, Phillis Wheatley Senior High School, Houston, Texas

**WHAT STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES
IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL?**

EARL R. SIFERT

THERE are many types of special services that a high school could well afford to make available to students. These services might be afforded in a financial sense, in a time sense, and in a learning sense. Obviously many schools are not able, for various reasons, to furnish so many special services as others. In this brief statement there is no effort to discuss all of the possible, desirable special services; rather is the discussion limited to a very brief statement of two types of special services, among others, existent in Proviso Township High School.

Earl R. Sifert is Superintendent of Proviso Township High School, Maywood, Illinois.

There is established in this school, a clinic dealing with reading problems, both remedial and the improvement type of reading. There is also a clinic providing for special services in the field of hearing, sight, and speech deficiencies. Following are brief statements regarding each of these types of services. These statements are made possible through the co-operation of Miss Dorothy Cherrington, in charge of the reading clinic, and Mr. Charles E. A. Moore, in charge of the speech and hearing clinic.

SPEECH CLINIC

In the commonly called "speech clinic" we find the work dealing with the fields of testing, examining, diagnosis, therapy, guidance, and referral.

In the fall of each school year, all freshmen report to the clinic through their English classes. Each student is given a speech and a hearing test. These screening tests determine what students will receive individual examinations. The individual examinations reveal what disposition will be made of the case. Those pupils in need of speech correction are assigned individually or in small groups to the clinic twice a week. Complete rehabilitation is possible in about ninety per cent of the cases.

Those pupils showing permanent hearing losses are given proper seating in the classroom. If indicated, lip reading instruction is given as also is auditory training. Hearing aids are furnished by the Illinois Division of Services for Crippled Children. All hearing cases have the opportunity of seeing and being treated in the clinic free of charge by a qualified ear, nose, and throat specialist. Many types of ear, nose, and throat cases receive treatment in the clinic from the doctor. Consent slips from the parents are necessary to receive this help. Personal follow-ups with the parents are made by letter, telephone, or personal visits.

At mid-year, all juniors are processed in the same manner. During this time, emphasis is put on hearing. Approximately 2,200 students come through the clinic each year. Of these, about 150 receive intensive training for speech or hearing disorders. Following are interesting data: Approximately ten per cent of school population have speech disorders. Boys outnumber girls approximately two to one. From the state survey of speech cases receiving therapy:

- 73% were articulation cases.
- 4.7% were phonatory cases (voice).
- .9% were cleft palate cases.
- 7.8% were stuttering cases.
- 1.0% were cerebral palsy cases.
- .1% were aphasic cases.
- 2.6% were delayed speech cases.
- 1.8% were hard of hearing cases.
- 7.5% were cases that withdrew.

Cases commonly remedial are articulation and phonatory. Difficult cases are cleft palate, stuttering, cerebral palsy, aphasia, and deafness.

This is one field of education where the comments of the parents are practically always one of appreciation and sincere thanks. The same can be said for the students. They often make special efforts to show their thanks. Former students "drop in" and express the same thoughts. Recently, children of former patients were brought into our summer clinic for help.

Teachers seem to take an interest in the work and appreciate our efforts. They often come in to discuss a case, make a referral, take tests themselves, or to discuss former students. There is excellent co-operation during our screening tests of freshmen and juniors and in obtaining students from study halls and classes for the doctor.

READING CLINIC

The Proviso reading clinic is set up with two types of students in mind. First, the student who is average or above in intelligence, but who is having difficulties in some field of reading. Second, the good reader who is anxious to become more efficient in speed comprehension and in vocabulary. Students of the second group are usually in junior or senior year and are preparing for college entrance.

Each student is given a survey and diagnostic test when he enters the clinic. When it is believed that the intelligence quotient obtained on the group test is not valid, an individual test is administered. This test is a more nearly valid measure of a pupil who is retarded in reading.

While it is not true that all good readers have good vision, and vice versa, it has been established that poor readers frequently have difficulties in fusion and muscular imbalance. A telebinocular test is given to most of the pupils who enter the clinic for reading improvement and those showing a need for visual correction are referred to the proper officials for diagnosis and treatment.

According to the results of the tests administered to the pupils at the end of the eighth grade, approximately ten to fifteen per cent are in need of specialized reading help. While the needs of many of these can be met in special English classes, those retarded more than two years need help on basic reading skills in a clinical situation. During a school year from 70 to 100 such cases are reached.

The speech and hearing clinic takes referrals on cases which may have a hearing problem related to the retardation in reading.

Students may come to the clinic on the basis of the eighth grade test results, by teacher or parent referral, or voluntarily. Work is done without credit, during available study periods. Severely retarded pupils need work covering a long period of time. Others may need only a six- or twelve-week period of work.

Approximately 5 per cent of the students are working on speed only; vocabulary only, 5 per cent; comprehension and vocabulary, 55 per cent; comprehension, vocabulary, and word pronunciation, 30 per cent; basic beginning reading, 5 per cent. All the above classifications may be classed as remedial if they reach the stage where specialized work is needed. Usually a retardation of two years or more indicates need for remedial help.

The so-called "non-reader" is difficult to reach. Clinical work has brought a few of these from beginning grade 1 to high-school reading level within two and one-half years, but this is not common.

Parents are becoming aware of the services of the clinic and come in to talk over their problems. Teachers are, in increasing numbers, making referrals on the basis of class performance with reference to ability to achieve. Students in general are anxious to solve their reading problems. They gain in confidence when given materials which they are able to read and understand. As they see their own advancement they are inspired to greater effort.

As long as we deal with children who have various rates of development, we shall have need for specialized help in reading. There probably is no field of secondary education which offers greater satisfaction in the securing of results that are "visible." Furthermore, there are few services which the high school can offer which challenge scientific knowledge and which tug at the heartstrings of all genuine teachers so greatly as do the services in the fields of speech, reading, vision, and hearing. The all-too-common occurrence of needs for these special services constitutes a perpetual demand for recognition of the duties of secondary-school officials in helping to make better citizens of our present-day boys and girls, not only through English, mathematics, history, and other common subjects, but through proper instruction in vital special services.

WHAT STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS?

MARY P. CORRE

A SUMMARY of pupil personnel services, with special emphasis upon guidance services and their relation to other pupil personnel and community services may form a basis for the discussion of this group. If we begin with new pupils entering the school, we may then first consider the need for—

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Orientation

Perhaps the best ideas for an orientation program for new pupils may come from pupils themselves—the class that is completing its first year in the new school. As they look back upon last September, what are the things that bothered them most about entering this strange, new school? What suggestions do they have as to things that might be done to help next year's new-comers adjust more easily on their entrance to the school? Visits back and forth between the high school and the contributing school may be made by pupils, teachers, and counselors. The orientation program should also include fun when the new pupils have an opportunity to get to know their new classmates. Big-brother and big-sister plans have worked satisfactorily in some schools, providing an opportunity for older pupils to help the new incoming class. Time out for an orientation program and an opportunity for young people to feel that they are welcome and belong to the new school is not time wasted.

Records

Cumulative or carefully developed counseling records prepared by the contributing school will do much to assist teachers and counselors to understand the needs of their new pupils. Some schools have found it helpful for teachers and counselors in the contributing schools to prepare a special list of pupils who may need immediate and special attention during the first few days of school. If hundreds of records are received by a counselor-teacher, it may be difficult to know which of these should be given early attention, and the special list serves this purpose. It may include the name of the pupil who has a serious cardiac condition and whose schedule should be checked to be sure that he is not having to walk up and down too many stairways; the pupil who presents certain emotional problems may need to feel immediately that he has a special friend in the counselor to whom he may come at any time; the pupil who has a serious financial problem and may not have money for lunches during that first week of school unless he is given a school job or special help from the school welfare fund; the pupil who has chosen far too difficult a program may be willing after a few days to change his subjects to those in which he will have a more satisfying experience. The question of whether or not such school records should be open to all members of the school staff or whether certain information should be considered confidential presents a special problem. Perhaps the best solution is to make records available to all teachers but to withhold certain confidential information that the parents and child might well feel should be told in great confidence to only one person. If psychiatrist and social workers are to feel that they may confer in confidence with the school counselor, this information also must of necessity be in a confidential file. School workers have much to learn from social workers in relation to records. Social workers do not turn over their records for reading to

their fellow social workers, but interpret from these records such information as may be used to help the client.

Group Guidance

Group guidance provides an opportunity for pupils to discuss any problems that are of concern to them—interpersonal relations, educational and vocational plans, etc. In some schools, such group discussions are a part of a home-room period. In others, special classes, variously called guidance, social living, human relations, etc., provide such an opportunity. In still others, special units have been developed as a part of English, social studies, home economics, or other courses. The career conferences, which bring into the school representatives of business and professional groups, supplement the group guidance program. Not only does such informal group discussion among young people provide an opportunity for them to help one another and to set group standards but it also provides a good orientation program for any individual counseling that may follow.

Counseling

Counseling which makes it possible for an individual pupil and counselor to discuss some of the problems of concern to the pupil is considered the heart of the guidance program. The school counselor may be likened to the general practitioner in medicine who recognizes that certain symptoms indicate that help from a specialist is needed. And so the school counselor, or teacher to whom the counseling function is assigned, calls upon other school specialists as the need for such service is indicated—the school psychiatrist, psychologist, home visitor, visiting teacher. Our counselors work closely with representatives of the social agencies in our city. The schools frequently call upon the social workers for help in meeting special needs of youth, and they, in turn, refer youth with whom they are working to the schools for special counseling. Case conferences, as well as written referrals and reports, are a part of this school-social agency co-operative program. Close contact with parents is a vital part of any counseling program, and all opportunities that provide for parent conferences need to be encouraged.

Placement

Most school systems today, that have not developed their own junior placement service, find that it is important to develop a close co-operative relationship with the State Employment Service. The public employment service, in turn, is not only able to be of great assistance in placing graduates and school leavers in jobs, making use of information provided by the school counselors, but is also in a position to be of special help through their testing program.

Follow-Up

Follow-up need not be prohibitive because of the expense involved. The office practice class may carry out a simple follow-up study which

will have great value for any school. Pupils become interested in such a project as a report is made to them of former students and what they are doing and are much more apt to send in information about themselves when they, too, are "followed-up." Follow-up is necessary if we are to evaluate our guidance services and our curriculum; if we are to make changes in these so that we may meet more adequately the needs of pupils. A continuing critical evaluation should be an important part of all guidance services.

Teacher and Principal

The teacher is the key person in any guidance program. Specialists can only supplement the work that she is doing and provide services which she may not have time to perform or which fall in certain areas in which she does not have special competency. The success of the guidance services in any secondary school is largely dependent upon the high-school principal. It is he who helps to determine the atmosphere of the school; it is he who is largely responsible for involving teachers in developing plans for guidance; it is he who is responsible for the organization of the guidance services and whether or not adequate time is provided for doing the job and doing it well. It is the high-school principal who helps members of the faculty understand the part each may play and play in harmony; who emphasizes the importance of integrating the various guidance services with the total school program. Only with the sympathetic understanding, support, and wise leadership of the high-school principal can guidance services be successful.

"LOUIS PASTEUR—MAN OF SCIENCE"

Louis Pasteur—Man of Science has just been released by Sterling Films, Inc. This film biography of one of the world's greatest scientists is narrated by John Carradine—noted star of Hollywood and Broadway—and was filmed at the places where Pasteur actually lived and worked. Many of Pasteur's scientific experiments are actually seen through the microscope, magnified to remarkable clarity, with serum slides, microbes, vaccines, and toxins graphically depicted on the screen. Never before has so complete a picture of Pasteur's contributions to modern medicine and science been presented as we observe him visiting hospitals, campaigning for health reforms, halting a silkworm epidemic, and developing his now-famous vaccines for rabies, and also for anthrax. This film is available in a three-reel version (running time—27½ minutes) for \$100. Complete information and screening prints may be obtained from Bernice Coe, Education Director, Sterling Films, Inc., 316 W. 57th St., New York 19, N. Y. Sterling Films also has released a new series of 13 musical films featuring the world famous 104 piece Vienna Philharmonic Orchestra. The group includes Beethoven's Fifth Symphony, Strauss' Emperor Waltz and Tales from the Vienna Woods, Schubert's Unfinished Symphony, and Mozart's Serenata Notturna. A free, illustrated folder, giving complete information on the Vienna Philharmonic Series is available on request.

Group VII (Monday)—TOPIC: What Are Your State Approval and Accrediting Standards for Secondary Schools?

CHAIRMAN: *Thomas C. Green*, Supervisor, State Department of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa; President, National Association of Directors and Supervisors of Secondary Education

CONSULTANT: *Elsworth Tompkins*, Specialist for Large High Schools, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

STATE APPROVAL AND ACCREDITING STANDARDS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

H. PAT WARDLAW

AMERICAN public education is unique in the history of the world. It is unique in that it is essentially free, it is universal, it includes the secondary area, it is a function of the state, and, by delegation, it is locally controlled. State approval and accrediting standards must take into consideration these factors and to do so quite general revision may be necessary in many cases.

At the eightieth annual meeting of the National Education Association held in Cleveland, Ohio, July 5-9, great stress was placed upon the raising of standards for public education in the United States. The Resolutions Committee of this organization recommended certain minimum standards for all schools involving such things as teacher qualifications, teacher salaries, class size, and school housing conditions. Many of the State Departments of Education have also launched programs aiming at considerably higher standards for public schools. These programs have taken the form of district reorganization movements, better practices in accreditation and more justifiable evaluation procedures. Regional accrediting associations are giving considerable attention to the revision of accreditation and evaluation procedures and a new two-year program of revision of the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards is now complete and the revised standards are in quite general use. All these activities indicate very definite trends toward a re-evaluation of public education in the United States and toward a "major drive" for improvement of public education on the basis of adequate evaluation. They also indicate even greater future stature for state departments of education and, of course, place greater responsibilities on their shoulders.

A belief in the education of all the children of all the people seems to encompass a belief in a minimum program of education for each child. It is a state function to guarantee this minimum program. To

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provide educational services and leadership to local districts in making this minimum program available each state has developed, through processes of law, some type of state education agency. By statute or by practice most state education agencies have the responsibility of the development of approval and accrediting standards for public schools. Such standards are evidently designed to effect school improvement.

If each state is to guarantee a minimum of education for each child there must be minimum criteria and standards below which no school may fall, but above which all schools should be encouraged to climb.

Minimum standards need not, and indeed should not, become maximum standards. Minimum standards will not promote standardization of schools if there is provision for a great degree of local autonomy and encouragement of local initiative in educational improvement. Flexibility with reference to criteria and standards provides for local autonomy but encouragement of local initiative comes chiefly through recognition of achievement.

Achievement or growth can and should be determined by use of both qualitative and quantitative means of measurement. Both subjective and objective standards and criteria are necessary.

Achievement, improvement or growth in individual schools can be measured only by making comparisons. Comparisons can and should be made, in my opinion, in two ways; namely, on a "now" *versus* "then" basis and on a "this one" *versus* "that one" basis. In other words, growth of an individual school, year by year, should be determined both by comparing its present status with its past status and by comparing it with other schools of a similar type.

Achievement or growth is best recognized when state approval and accrediting standards and procedures consider the merit or prestige factor in terms of grades or classes of schools. In fact, a majority of the states now classify schools according to levels of achievement, either directly or indirectly. Witness the terms "advised," "warned," and the like, commonly used. Some schools are better than other schools and they should be recognized as such.

The primary purposes of approval and accreditation are, therefore, the development and recognition of schools. The first step in approval should be self-evaluation on the part of each local school or district. This is a co-operative venture involving the faculty, the board of education, the student body, and the community. The state education agency provides leadership and service in this undertaking.

Any state plan for approval and accreditation of schools should include (1) philosophy, policies, and procedures; (2) qualitative and quantitative standards; and (3) the method of recognizing educational growth. The policies and procedures should be brief and sufficiently self-explanatory. They should explain the general basis for accredita-

tion and the procedure by which accreditation is actually accomplished. The standards should be comprehensive and flexible and should encompass (1) breadth or scope of program, (2) quality of instruction, and (3) guidance and special services, unless guidance and other services are considered as a part of the scope of the program itself. The standards should be both objective and subjective in nature and should emphasize quantity as well as quality.

All other things being equal, a school in which the scope of program and services is quite large is a better school than one in which the scope of program and services is limited. Although there is nothing sacred about Carnegie units and our ordinary secondary-school courses, as long as we speak in such terms we must recognize that a secondary school with an offering of 50 units can usually meet the needs of its students better than a secondary school with an offering of only 20 units. To a certain degree the size of a school does affect its opportunities to serve the needs of its students. Although each school program must meet its own local needs and be adapted to the community which surrounds it, a certain breadth of offering is desirable and should be described and maintained. Criteria and standards which relate to the quality of the school program include many items such as buildings and facilities, classroom equipment and supplies, qualifications of teachers and administrative personnel, experience and attributes of teachers, and even the attitudes of pupils, teachers and administrators.

Guidance and other services, if not considered in the scope of the program, should be emphasized in the criteria and standards. Health services and services for atypical children may be considered in this category. Regardless of the breadth of school program in terms of course offerings and the quality of instruction given, guidance is necessary in order that each individual pupil may receive the greatest advantage of all that his school has to offer him.

There should be more than one class or category of approved schools; and movement from one classification to a higher classification, as a result of growth and achievement, should be facilitated. Recognition should be given to all schools of a local district as a unit in order that improvement in the total educational program may be achieved. In states or localities wherein local school districts are exceptionally large, accreditation should, at least, consider the elementary feeder schools if each secondary school is to be accredited separately. Neither an elementary nor a secondary school should be accredited separately without consideration being given to the other.

SUMMARY

By way of summary, then, the following points seem worthy of consideration:

1. Except in extremely large districts, all school accreditation should be made in terms of the total school district rather than each individual

- secondary school. In any event, in the accreditation of a secondary school, the elementary feeder schools should be given consideration.
2. Accreditation and classification are not ends within themselves but only means to an end. Their purpose is not standardization of schools but development and recognition of them. Quality and quantity of growth are of paramount importance.
 3. Both objective and subjective standards or criteria should be used in the approval and accreditation of schools. The chief purposes of establishing standards or criteria are as follows:
 - a. Stimulate professional growth and greater service on the part of all teachers, administrators, and other employees.
 - b. Encourage self-evaluation of the school on the part of the school employees, the board of education and the community.
 - c. Encourage supervision on the part of administrators and those charged with supervisory duties.
 - d. Encourage wholesome co-operation with the supervisory help of the State Department of Education.
 - e. Provide a basis for accreditation and classification.

STATE APPROVAL AND ACCREDITING STANDARDS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

R. M. GARRISON

SINCE public education is a function of state government, the State Department of Education must be charged with the responsibility of approving high schools. To perform this important function, the Department of Education must, through a set of standards, assure a high quality of secondary education and promote the continuous improvement of educational opportunities.

Standards devised by a state department of education must describe the conditions under which effective work is done and also indicate what the schools should accomplish. Major emphasis is to be placed upon the results achieved rather than upon the means and the facilities used.

To be effective, the standards must be flexible enough to take care of changing situations, to promote constant growth, and to facilitate any necessary adjustments. They must provide general guidance and direction for the high schools in harmony with a basic democratic philosophy of education. They should aim to articulate harmoniously the school's activities with the objectives of higher and lower schools and with the interests of the community.

The standards must permit and encourage reasonable freedom in setting up curriculums, in organizing courses, in constructing schedules

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of recitations and in using teaching procedures. They are to be guiding, suggestive, and directive rather than restrictive. Only minimum requirements should be insisted upon for accreditation, although it is expected that no school will be satisfied with attaining merely the minimum.

Since standards are to furnish the basis for accrediting high schools, some effective means must be devised to evaluate the extent to which schools strive to meet and excel them. The department of education has encouraged schools to evaluate themselves in terms of the standards through the use of a self-evaluation booklet developed by the instructional staff of the department. In addition, the supervising staff during each visit to a high school constantly evaluates the school in terms of the twenty-two approved standards. Each supervisor makes a written report to the school following his visit. Thus, the school is kept informed as to the extent to which it meets, fails to meet, or excels the standards. It is hoped by this procedure to keep schools alert to the need of continuous improvement through effectively recognizing existing standards.

If a state department of education is to accredit high schools on the basis of standards, the department must have the power to remove the accreditation of any school which fails to meet standards. Continuous disregard for existing standards not only results in a lowering of the quality of the work in the offending school but also in a general lowering of educational objectives and the effectiveness of the secondary education program in the entire state.

The withdrawal of accreditation is a serious matter and the purported action must be given careful consideration before such a drastic move is taken. Assurance must be given that the children will not be deprived of secondary educational opportunities and that the school or schools to which they will be assigned has available a much stronger program. Many times it appears to be a more logical and concrete approach to the improvement of high schools for the department to encourage better school units than to remove accreditation. We feel that we accomplish greater improvement in secondary education in those cases where a consolidation can be consummated than through the withdrawal of accreditation.

Since withdrawal and granting of accreditation is such a serious problem we have in Ohio a legally constituted board of five members that passes upon this question. The high-school supervisors make periodical reports to the board on schools which are failing to meet standards. The board can then revoke the accreditation or place the school on probation. If placed on probation and improvement is not made within a reasonable length of time, the accreditation of the school is withdrawn. Such action closes the high school and the board of education must assign the pupils in grades nine to twelve inclusive to an approved high school or high schools.

Many educators feel that secondary education is at the crossroad. We must move in the right direction and that direction is towards an improved educational program that will meet the needs of the youth in the complexity of a modern world. Standards wisely used as a basis for accreditation can and should promote great improvements in our secondary educational program and provide increased educational opportunities for all youth.

STATE APPROVAL AND ACCREDITING STANDARDS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

PHILIP A. ANNAS

THE ACCREDITING and approval of secondary schools in a state should serve two purposes: (1) to assure minimum educational opportunities for all the young people of the state and (2) to encourage local school authorities to examine the educational needs of the youth in their area and build a curriculum to meet these needs.

In determining minimum standards that will guarantee a reasonable educational experience for the boys and girls of high-school age several factors must be considered. Is the state rural or urban, or are there sizeable areas of each? Has the state large areas with low socioeconomic standards? What is the system of state aid to education? Does the state have a practical formula for equalizing state funds?

Maine is a rural state; it has 246 secondary schools. Of this number, ten have less than twenty five students; 106 have less than 100 students; and 164 have less than 200 students. Because of the equalization factor in our formula for state aid, state subsidy to the municipalities varies from twenty five per cent of the operating cost in the areas with a relatively large amount of taxable property per child to be educated at public expense to sixty five per cent in the poorer sections. In the poorer communities where the local government is asked to supply only thirty five per cent of the cost, the amount of money is inadequate so that minimum standards have to be set as high as possible and still be attainable. These minimum requirements, in brief, are: (1) The school plant must meet state regulations for sanitation, heat, light, ventilation, and safety. The rooms must be suited to the grade and type of work. (2) The school year shall comprise at least 180 days. (3) An approved four-year course of study shall be offered and of the sixteen Carnegie units required for graduation four shall be in English and one in American History. (4) All teachers must hold Maine certificates of secondary grade for the subject field

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in which they are teaching. (5) The laboratory equipment and supplies shall be sufficient to allow laboratory practice in groups of not more than two students for a major part of the experiments and the library must have an adequate supply of dictionaries, reference books, newspapers, and periodicals. Minimum expenditures for laboratory and library are required each year.

Schools failing to meet these minimum standards are not recognized as secondary schools and therefore may not receive public funds from either state or local sources, and must operate strictly as private schools.

The second function of accrediting, to stimulate citizens and local school authorities to evaluate their local offerings in terms of the needs of boys and girls in their community and to improve the curriculum of the school to meet these needs, is difficult to attain. I shall report briefly on what we are doing in Maine but I hope to get valuable help and suggestions from other members of the group.

In 1945 our Legislature passed a law allowing a student living in a community where the secondary school did not offer at least two occupational courses the right to attend some other approved school for the purpose of taking an occupational course and having his tuition paid by the municipality in which his parents reside.

The administration of the law has given our state department of education an opportunity to set standards for accrediting each occupational course. For example, in Business Education a committee consisting of five experienced commercial teachers, a student at the University of Maine studying to be a commercial teacher, a superintendent, a principal, an English teacher, a representative of a business college, a member of the state department of education, and Dr. Hamden L. Forkner of Columbia University serving as consultant drew up minimum requirements for a business course to be considered occupational. Our department has recognized four other occupational courses to date: Agriculture, Home Economics, Industrial Arts, and Distributive Education. The schools along the coast are working toward a course in seashore fisheries education. This law has encouraged schools to establish at least two occupational courses of standard grade. Small schools find it impractical to offer these courses, and within the last few years area schools are beginning to appear that have enrollments large enough to make occupational courses feasible.

We have given thought also to the idea of setting up standards in school administration, health and physical education, guidance, music, arts and crafts, co-curricular programs, and audio-visual aids. The state board of education would give a certificate that would recognize schools meeting these standards.

At present we are very much interested in encouraging school faculties to use the *Evaluative Criteria* prepared by the Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards as a means of self evaluation

which experience has shown is almost certain to result in a good school becoming a better school. The great advantage of the *Evaluative Criteria* is that one school is not compared with another but the analysis indicates how well a school is meeting the needs of the boys and girls in the community. At the conclusion of the study recommendations are made for the improvement of the school program. When a follow up study reveals that curriculum improvement has resulted, recognition of this achievement by the State Board of Education would give practical meaning to the second function of accreditation.

I feel that the accreditation of secondary schools at the state level should contain as little policing as possible and still guarantee to our boys and girls schools which are meeting minimum standards. I feel that accreditation of secondary schools should stimulate in a practical way local faculties, school officials, and citizens to examine their own school curricula periodically and take necessary steps to adjust them to more adequately meet the needs of the young people at the time and in the place where the school is functioning.

APPROVAL AND ACCREDITING STANDARDS IN MINNESOTA

F. E. HEINEMANN

THE term used for the approval of public schools in Minnesota is classification rather than accrediting. There is an historical significance to the use of that term. Some years ago schools were placed in certain classes, largely on the basis of size. The term classification, therefore, has persisted. For practical purposes there is no difference between the two terms. Colleges in the state accept the list of classified public schools prepared by the State Department of Education for the purpose of accreditation for college entrance. At the present time some thought is being given to a change in terminology.

Schools are classified in Minnesota as follows: ungraded elementary, graded elementary, high-school departments, four-year high schools, six-year high schools, junior high schools, senior high schools, and vocational high schools. At the present time, there are very few vocational high schools. In the larger schools, those with enrollments in grades seven to twelve above 300 are organized as junior and senior high schools. The trend among those with enrollments less than 300 is toward the six-year high-school organization.

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CLASSIFICATION PROCEDURE

The procedure through which a school must go to become classified for any particular classification may be of some interest. First of all, a school must make application for a particular classification upon a blank form provided for that purpose by the State Department of Education. Schools are advised to consult with members of the State Department of Education concerning the qualifications that are necessary for any particular type of classification. They must then proceed to organize their instructional program and take the necessary steps to conform with the standards that have been established by the State Board of Education for the particular classification desired. The school must then operate on a provisional basis for one year during which it is officially visited by a staff member from the State Department of Education. Graded elementary and secondary schools are under the jurisdiction of the Graded Elementary and High School Division of the State Department. If the official visitor from the department is satisfied that the school meets the various requirements that have been set up and if the annual reports submitted at the end of the year substantiate the visitor's findings the school is recommended to the State Board of Education for classification. The recommendation and subsequent action of the State Board takes place at the annual meeting of the State Board in August. The classification then becomes effective with the provisional year.

The basis for determining the classification of a school is set up in the minimum standards adopted by the State Board of Education. In order for these standards to be official, they must be submitted to a public hearing, obtain the approval of the State Attorney General's office, and be filed with the Secretary of State.

SOME OF THE STANDARDS FOR CLASSIFICATION

It is out of the question to attempt to give in this article a detailed elaboration of all of the standards. Some of the most important ones will be suggested. Schools must meet minimum enrollments to qualify for classification. For a six-year graded elementary school, there must be not less than 80 pupils; for an eight-year graded elementary school, 100 pupils. Junior high schools, senior high schools, and six-year high schools must each have minimum enrollments of 100 pupils. Four-year high schools must have a minimum enrollment of 75 pupils. High-school departments must have not less than 50 pupils; and a vocational high school, 60 pupils. These figures apply to schools that are making application for any one of the classifications listed for the first time. For those schools that are already on the list, the minimum enrollments are somewhat less in each case. Actually it is our feeling that these figures should be increased somewhat, particularly on the secondary level. We are in agreement with the theory that a secondary school

should have in the neighborhood of 300 pupils in order to enable it to provide a complete program of secondary education in all its aspects. We are compelled, however, to be realistic since Minnesota still is in the category of those states that will continue to have small high schools for some time to come.

In each case, a minimum number of teachers must also be employed. That figure is gauged to the development and maintenance of the best possible educational program in the size of school concerned. All teachers must be properly certificated by the State Department of Education. As a matter of fact, a school board may not legally pay a teacher who does not hold a teaching certificate.

A school must develop and maintain an educational program that meets certain minimum requirements. All schools must offer work in English and social studies in each of the years of the high-school program. They must provide as much of a program of electives and extraclass activities as the district's financial means permit in order to enrich the educational offering as much as possible. In six-year high schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools, it is necessary, for example, to provide work in the vocational areas. Guidance, library, and audio-visual programs are required. The scheduling of classes in those types of schools must provide for the segregation of pupils of the junior high-school level from those in the senior high-school level. Teachers should be assigned classes in their major and minor field of preparation. Each teacher, particularly in the academic fields, must have one free period during the school day. Class sizes are limited to 30 pupils per class.

A school must have or must provide suitable physical plant facilities to accommodate the program of instruction that is being offered. When new physical plant facilities must be provided, they must be approved by the Building and Grounds Division of the State Department of Education and, in the case of the special services such as home economics, industrial arts, and library, they must also have the approval of the supervisors in those special areas.

Occasionally a question is raised as to the justification for establishing rigid standards controlling local school situations. We in Minnesota have found that a judicious application of state standards has had a salutary effect on local school programs. There was a time when state standards were established as a basis for the payment of state aids. Such aids were considered a means of stimulating local school programs. It must be admitted that there still is a bit of that philosophy in the state's administration of public schools, and with some justification when it is realized that approximately thirty six per cent of the local school revenues are obtained from state and county sources. It is logical to assume that such support should be earned.

The philosophy of stimulation, however, is very definitely being minimized both in theory and practice in the state of Minnesota. State

aids are intended to serve the more defensible purpose of equalizing educational opportunities throughout the entire state. Even though we may still be a long way from the complete realization of that ideal, the aids themselves, as well as the field services from the State Department of Education, are directed toward the improvement of local school conditions through efforts toward such improvement on the part of local school authorities.

Group VII (Tuesday)—TOPIC: How Can We Improve the High-School Curriculum on the State Level?

CHAIRMAN: Warren W. Knox, Assistant Commissioner for Instructional Services, State Education Department, Albany, New York; Vice-President, National Association of Directors and Supervisors of Secondary Education

CONSULTANT: J. Dan Hull, Associate Director Instruction Branch, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

HOW TO IMPROVE THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM ON THE STATE LEVEL?

PAUL D. COLLIER

THE FOLLOWING criteria for an effective secondary school curriculum are generally accepted:

1. Activities must be geared to the needs, interests, and maturity levels of the pupils.
2. Activities should be co-operatively determined, planned, managed, and evaluated by the learners and their teachers.
3. The timing and scheduling of activities are largely matters for local decision.
4. Activities centering around practical problems of living and developmental problems of youth should be identified in the local situation.
5. Since the discovery of the means and materials which may be used in solving problems is an important part of the educational process, this should also be largely the responsibility at the local level.

The above criteria indicate that curriculum improvement is the result of activity at the local level. Direct involvement of the pupils in all phases of the process is required for effective education. However, these criteria apply to the final or operative stage of curriculum improvement. The effectiveness of this most important final stage, "operation local," also, measures the success of all previous stages, ranging from pre-service preparation through in-service improvement

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for all personnel concerned in any situation. Some factors which influence the quality and success of "operation local" are:

1. The quality and type of pre-service preparation for all personnel concerned.
2. The quality and type of in-service improvement of all personnel working in:
 - a. Activities sponsored by state departments of education
 - b. Extension and summer courses and workshops directed by teacher education institutions
 - c. Activities initiated and carried on at the local level.

While much discussion could and should be directed to the pre-service preparation program, consideration will be given to the more difficult and most critical problem of in-service improvement.

At the present time far too many curriculum improvement projects are started and continue for awhile with great promise and then seem to wither away and fail. There are several reasons for this disheartening cycle which I should like to describe briefly.

In the first place, some leader, either a local or state supervisor, desires to initiate some project for curriculum improvement. Due to the prestige of his position, teachers, of course, take part. But oftentimes, they do so without any real conviction or understanding. In this type of beginning one fundamental principle is violated—*Teachers should identify, define, and seek solutions to their professional problems.*

In the second place, teachers are oftentimes plunged into the solution of a problem before they have a sufficient period of time for orientation, exploration, and study. They are hurried to reach unseasoned solutions, and, as a result, initiate change without anticipating blocks and difficult decisions which they are unprepared to meet. I believe that *new programs involving significant reorganization should not be introduced unless they are preceded by a thorough period of in-service education for the entire school faculty.*

In the third place, it is the exception for teachers involved in a new venture to be relieved of any of their current responsibilities before undertaking additional major assignments. Evidence indicates that teachers are working, on the average, nearly 50 hours per week with many greatly exceeding this amount of time. It is difficult for teachers to do a quality job with too many classes, too many pupils in classes, and in addition find time for planning, evaluation, counselling, co-curricular activities, and meaningful in-service education. A realistic view of the use of the time and energy of teachers is necessary at all times. *It is imperative to review duties of teachers when additional major assignments are contemplated.*

In the fourth place, I have seen many programs fail because of a lack of appropriate instructional materials. *New and reorganized activities require a wealth of up-to-date materials which call for increased appropriations for library and audio-visual aids. While present text-*

books and other materials may be reasonably adequate for a subject-centered curriculum, a program based on practical problems of living, requires materials based on society in action. Materials for a functional curriculum designed to help youth better to accept inescapable responsibilities in community life as citizens, home members and workers, cannot be effective unless funds are made available for needed printed materials, audio-visual aids, instructional supplies, equipment and transportation. Throughout the country there have been insufficient appropriations for these important items.

In summary, the success of curriculum improvement depends upon teacher and faculty identification of problems, a sufficient time for orientation, exploration and study, a reduction of present loads when new responsibilities are assigned, and funds to implement the program undertaken.

If state-wide curriculum improvement is to be achieved, co-operative planning and action among state, local, and higher educational leadership, must replace the all too prevalent competition or "drift" that exists at present. Through conferences, workshops, courses, and publications, these various authorities and agencies are striving for audiences with teachers. Pressures, which may be designated as authoritarian, influential, and financial are used indirectly or even directly to obtain followers. A great many of the activities represent overtime and overloads for teachers. While the normal job requirements of teaching must necessarily extend beyond the hours when the pupils are at school, there is a growing discontent among teachers because activities are taking too many extra evenings, weekends, and even holidays.

IN-SERVICE IMPROVEMENT

The secondary school provides a program for youth consisting of the curriculum and services. Each person on a school staff is given an important responsibility to make this program function. In-service programs are instituted to enable school personnel to do more effective work. This in-service program is a part of the regular job of the teacher. Since it is part of the regular job, a teacher should not bear the cost any more than pay for the privilege of performing some other part of his job such as teaching a class or sponsoring a school club. If this reasoning is sound and acceptable, many of the difficulties in in-service improvement can be eliminated.

The budget for the local community should provide for this important part of the teacher's work. Money definitely budgeted for substitute teachers, extension and summer courses, conference expenses, travel, and instructional materials would place the in-service program on a sound business-like basis. The educational benefits to pupils would undoubtedly more than justify all expenditures of time, effort, and money. Also, the consultative services in the state department of

education, teacher education institutions, and other agencies could be more readily used in conferences, workshops, courses, and evaluations, if the in-service program is well planned.

The state department of education might also, through promotional grants, materially aid in-service education, including curriculum improvement. Many states have wisely used promotional grants to improve educational areas and services.

Industrial arts, speech, developmental reading, education of exceptional children, audio-visual aids, and many other areas have shown marked progress through financial encouragement from the state. Promotional grants for in-service education, school libraries, and other instructional materials deserve consideration. Such promotional grants should remain comparatively small and in no way displace large general grants for the support of education.

Departments of education in some states now have and use other legal means to encourage curriculum improvement and in-service education generally. They may allow school days occasionally to be shortened or even entire school days to be devoted exclusively to curriculum improvement.

Curriculum improvement today requires the continuous use of pupils and laymen. They not only have a definite place in the ongoing daily work of the school but they should also make significant contributions in all special efforts for curriculum improvement as well. The youth for whom the curriculum is designed should contribute primarily at the local level.

REMOVING BARRIERS

Removing barriers, which hinder the development of the curriculum in the secondary school, is one of the principal tasks at the present time. At a Life Adjustment Education Conference held in Connecticut in May 1951, the following barriers were listed:

1. Lethargy and conservatism on the part of school personnel.
2. Vested interest groups.
3. A general lack of understanding of what needs to be done or how to go about it.
4. Departmentalization of the curriculum which tends to make understanding of the individual difficult and develops over-emphasis on mastery of subject matter.
5. Present certification standards tend to foster subject matter emphasis.
6. Budgetary limitations.
7. Inaccurate information concerning college entrance requirements.
8. Prestige and social status values attached to some courses.
9. The inflexibility of the present program of offerings.
10. Too much reliance on single textbooks.
11. Lack of teacher skill in developing units of work.
12. Lack of elective opportunity for some courses of study.
13. Too much emphasis on the classics in English and elsewhere thereby ignoring the practical everyday problems and needs of youth.

14. The problem in general of establishing a 12-year program so that it emphasizes general rather than vocational education.
15. Inadequate facilities to house a modern program of education.
16. The present class size is too large for sound educational practice.
17. Too little pupil-teacher planning and participation.
18. Lack of "know-how" in developing pupil attitudes.
19. An indiscriminate use of the elective system.
20. Inadequate pre-service and in-service training of teaching staff.
21. Parents who insist upon a certain program of studies for their children contrary to the best judgment of the school.
22. Inadequate preparation of teachers to identify and help with the personal problems of youth.
23. Inability to develop a flexible school schedule so that community resources may be more fully utilized.
24. The lack of flexibility to meet needs of students within the classroom.
25. The lack of agreement as to how the slow and fast learners may be helped most effectively.
26. The problems related to rewards, penalties, diplomas, marks, and the like.
27. How does a staff arrive at being "concerned" about the program of life adjustment education?

In conclusion, in-service education primarily designed for curriculum improvement is in need of planning and reorganization. Coordinated efforts of all leadership should be accomplished through state departments of education. In-service improvement is part of the job responsibility of teachers and other professional personnel. Since it is part of the job for all, it should be supported financially by local communities and the state. Since education is a major enterprise for all youth, laymen, and teachers, they should all continuously share in its evaluation and improvement. Among the major tasks is the removal of barriers which impede progress.

HOW TO IMPROVE THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM ON THE STATE LEVEL?

WILLIAM I. KING

ABOUT seven years ago, a group of highly trained specialists in education decided to collaborate on a new curriculum for Montana schools. The members of this group were Montana teachers and administrators. They were fine and sincere people, most of them outstanding in one way or another. The new curriculum which they developed was similar to the Virginia curriculum which had been prepared by Dr. Caswell. A loose-leaf filing procedure was an important feature of the organization of materials. With all of the sound procedures and accepted philosophy which were incorporated into the revised curriculum, it didn't

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capture the enthusiasm of the teachers and administrators of our state. In spite of a rather generous distribution of the publication, the plan has not yet been adopted as a whole. We believe there are several reasons for this. The first one is that the changes in curriculum were to trickle downward from the elevated status of educational leadership. It is difficult for us to imagine the passive dislike the teachers and administrators in the small communities hold for official directives and for area recommendations.

In addition to the failure of the committees to sell the changed curriculum to the educational system, a second difficulty was encountered in the form of an oversight. This oversight was the lack of adequate courses in teacher preparation on the part of our two- and four-year teacher education institutions. However sufficient the former patterns may have been, the core curriculum developed by the committee placed new and heavier demands on the teachers.

Even if we could have surmounted the two obstacles mentioned, over-direction and a lack of qualified teachers, it is doubtful if the new curriculum could have been placed in effect because the administrators themselves were not interested and were not qualified to accept the import of the plan. Perhaps in other states the retired or graduated football and basketball coaches go back into teaching, but in Montana altogether too many of them capitalized on the publicity of their position and became superintendents and principals. Although many of us in the Treasure State maintain that basketball and football have little and sometimes no relationship to education, these men found their way to educational leadership—if leadership it may be called. I hasten to add, that in recent years this situation has shown improvement largely due to the realization on the part of the administrators themselves, of their inadequacies and of their need to improve their status.

A fourth barrier to successful revision of curriculum was the failure by both the state and the local administrators, to enlist the cooperation of the communities. This is such a vital step, that the Montana Department of Public Instruction is willing to move more slowly, to wait a few years if necessary, for the completion of this point.

In addition to workshops in education for both administrators and teachers, held each summer at the various units of the Greater University, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction holds at least one meeting of two or three days with all administrators on the adaptation of curricular materials to local schools. This is made somewhat easier by the fact that Montana is not organized on a state-wide course-of-study basis. Study guides are available for most vocational subjects, especially in the Smith-Hughes field, but not in the commercial field, activities, and most of the academic subjects. The difference between a study guide and a course of study, in our opinion, is about two hundred pages, and about two weeks of reading time for the teacher.

What I am trying to say is that the beautifully planned, formalized curriculum issued by directives from governmental levels to local administrators and teachers has been an outstanding failure. A regional plan of curriculum revision will be received with even less enthusiasm, in the opinion of many of our administrators. Instead, a positive outlook will call for the following:

1. Development of aims and curriculum slant on the local level with the encouragement of county and state agencies.
2. General education and special preparation for participation in educational planning to be offered in teacher-preparation institutions.
3. Co-operative preparation of study-guides rather than detailed courses of study written by upper-level experts.
4. Continued workshop meetings on a state-wide basis to determine trends and detect weaknesses in current development. These meetings are divided into sub-divisions for the small high schools, middle-sized high schools, and for larger school systems in the state.
5. Continue to be on guard against over-emphasis of any particular phase of the curriculum, whether it be Smith-Hughes, commercial subjects, physical education, mathematics, or any other subject.

The realization that curriculum revision is a continuous process, has found firm footing in the minds of our administrators. The day of the elaborate course of study, which, like the "one-hoss shay," was guaranteed for a hundred years to end in total collapse, has long since passed. We have learned that, by the time an idea is developed in a committee, approved by administrators, and finally recommended for practice, much of it may be out of date by the time it reaches the teacher. We are finding the depth of the confusion between method and curriculum materials to be greater than we had thought possible. Not too long ago, someone published an elaborate bulletin on the use of textbooks and submitted it as a curriculum in reading. I mention this, as a means of showing the fantastic lengths to which the meaning of the word curriculum has been stretched. Our own definition of the word curriculum is that it is the total learning experience of the child in his school and his community.

These recommendations are the result of practical experience in dealing with a sparsely populated area. When a single high school must serve the youth of an area larger than the state of Rhode Island, and yet have an enrollment of twenty-five or thirty pupils, yet to be adjacent to an urban area in which fifty thousand persons live within a few square miles, the wide variation in educational needs becomes more apparent. That is the reason the curriculum must become a thing of many faces—to have fitting meaning for all communities and all youth.

HOW CAN WE IMPROVE THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM ON THE STATE LEVEL?

WERNER C. DIECKMANN

THE title is misleading. I think it would be better if we asked the question, "What Can We Do On the State Level to Stimulate Curriculum Development on the Local Level?" I say this because before we complete our discussion we will refer to the "grass-roots approach" and the concept that curriculum improvement is a process that takes place in a school when the faculty studies and works with community members and school youth to find answers to such questions as: (1) What are the skills, competencies, and attitudes we want youth to have (what are the end products we want for youth in this community)? (2) How should we be teaching in terms of the knowledge we have about how people learn? (3) What kinds of instructional materials do we need in terms of our objectives for youth and the knowledge we have about the educational processes? and (4) What kinds of buildings do we need in terms of our objectives and knowledge about learning?

Getting curriculum improvement study underway on the local level requires our working with administrators to develop their leadership abilities. They must achieve an understanding of the great need for a continuous program of curriculum development as well as become acquainted with the methods and materials which will help faculty members find answers to such questions as are listed in the opening paragraph. Competency in the all important area of working relationships must be joined by all administrators. This, therefore, becomes an important facet of the leadership development program.

The role of the state office of public instruction is that of marshalling all possible resources that will contribute to the in-service and pre-service growth of administrators to assume their role of leadership to help bring about the kind of learning experiences in our secondary schools that are meaningful to all youth.

Through the medium of state-wide school administrators' conferences we have, over a period of years, emphasized curriculum development and leadership growth of administrators. The many requests for consultant services of staff members to work with regional groups of administrators and with district and school building faculties coming as a direct result of the state-wide meeting has proven the effectiveness of these meetings to develop leadership and stimulate curriculum improvement on the local level.

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THE MOUNTAIN CONFERENCE

The Seventh Annual School Administrators' Mountain Conference is now being planned by our state office staff and the Department of Administration and Supervision of the Washington Education Association. The four-and-one-half day conference is held in June, one week prior to the regular tourist season opening of the Mt. Rainier Park Companies' Paradise Inn and Lodge. Because of the informal setting and remote location, these facilities lend themselves ideally to a conference attended by 300 to 400 superintendents, principals, and supervisors.

Many program patterns have been utilized to achieve the objectives of the conference. Participation by the conference members is an important objective which has been achieved by means of buzz sessions, role playing, socio-drama, panel discussion, symposiums, and discussion groups. The utilization of interrogators, blackboard recorders, and summarizers has improved the effectiveness of group discussion.

Prominent educators have been brought to the conference for one or several presentations or have been used during the conference as consultants. For example, Dr. Louis E. Rath of New York University was the principal consultant for the 1949 conference which centered on the topic "The Emotional Needs of Children and Youth." Following the conference Dr. Rath was invited to return to the state to headline college campus conferences and to present his message to the teachers of the state association meetings.

Program topics such as Life Adjustment Education, Citizenship Education, Human Growth and Relations, Teacher and Administrator Preparation and Placement, In-Service Growth of Staff and School-Community Planning have been featured in the series of Mountain Conferences. Conference summaries or proceedings have been prepared and distributed as resource materials.

A STATE-WIDE CONFERENCE

Washington is experiencing a tremendous growth in school population. Although housing elementary-school children has been our greatest concern, we know that during the next five-year period we will have to increase our secondary-school facilities greatly. Since almost every community has experienced school enrollment growth, we planned a three-day state-wide conference last December, focusing attention on the need to determine what kind of secondary-school program we are going to have and to develop co-operatively school building plans which will facilitate and not hinder the growth of the "emerging" secondary-school program.

An outstanding contribution was made to the Conference by Dr. Marcella R. Lawler, Associate Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia "U.," in developing the "how" and the "way" of

determining and satisfying the educational needs of all youth. Mr. William Candill, Research Architect, Texas Engineering Experiment Station, Texas, developed the thesis that educational specifications determined by the school and the community should direct the architect in planning a school building. Conference proceedings will be distributed to schools. Follow-up meetings on a regional basis have been requested and are being planned.

In closing let me emphasize that the state-wide conference is designed to highlight problems that need to be studied on the local level and that adequate consultant service and study materials must be provided to facilitate the process of curriculum development.

HOW TO IMPROVE THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM ON THE STATE LEVEL?

ARTHUR CARPENTER

THE PROGRAM of secondary curriculum improvement on the state level was, in Iowa, a program embracing six levels of development. The six steps in building the state courses of study may be briefly outlined as follows:

1. A state-wide study of secondary curriculum issues which resulted in a published study manual.
2. As a direct result of this study a second volume of the Iowa Secondary School Co-operative Curriculum Program involving a proposed design for secondary education in Iowa was published.
3. A total of 21 handbooks in the various subject matter areas were produced.
4. The whole of the curriculum program was subsequently implemented by a series of state-wide Improvement of Instruction meetings over a two-year period.
5. The next step involved in our curriculum improvement program embodies an evaluation of the present courses of study.
6. Following the evaluation process, we in Iowa will begin the revision of the various courses of study.

In undertaking a study of the secondary-school curriculum certain basic assumptions must be recognized:

1. Any effective curriculum program should grow out of an agreement on the functions and purposes of secondary education.
2. Curriculum development in the final analysis should be a local project. The purpose of the state program is to stimulate and supplement local programs and to provide a curriculum for those schools which are unable to provide one locally.

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3. Curriculum revision should be a continuous process, changes being made from time to time as changing conditions require.
4. It should be a co-operative undertaking, with teachers and students having a part.
5. Curriculum development should grow out of the needs of youth in a changing society.
6. Any effective program should involve teacher training and growth.
7. It should operate to achieve more functional outcomes.

CENTRAL PLANNING COMMITTEE

The first step which was taken in the Iowa Secondary School Co-operative Curriculum Program was the establishing of a Central Planning Committee whose task it would be to supervise the overall picture of curriculum production. This Central Planning Committee was to appoint various sub-committees and subject matter area committees whose task became the actual production of the curricula material in the 21 various subject matter areas.

The Central Planning Committee was composed of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Iowa, a professor of education from the College of Education at the State University of Iowa, a supervisor of the department of public instruction who was designated to act as the editor, a senior high-school principal, a junior high-school principal, a superintendent of schools, a director of research from the Iowa State Teachers College, a classroom teacher, the head of the department of Vocational Education at Iowa State College, and the deputy state superintendent of schools. It may be seen that almost every type of position in education was represented on this Central Planning Committee.

One of the first tasks of this Central Planning Committee was to set up a sub-committee which in turn prepared study material for state-wide distribution. (The members of this particular sub-committee were also members of the Central Planning Committee.) The study manual was designed in such a manner that it presented an organized method whereby the teachers in the various schools in Iowa might make a thorough study of the problems that needed to be solved in a task as great as this. A partial list of the issues to be studied (through this manual) were:

1. What are the aims of secondary education?
2. What subject matter and activities will best serve in the realization of these aims?
3. What are the instructional procedures that will contribute most?
4. What administrative and organizational procedures will best further the objectives which are set up?

The Central Planning Committee suggested that when administrators, high-school teachers, and lay people had co-operatively decided on the broad, basic principles involved, the second step in the program (production) started.

The study manual was prepared by the sub-committee of the Central Planning Committee in an effort to make available in a convenient discussion form a statement of certain of the most essential issues that confronted the secondary schools of Iowa. The manual was designed to assist in keeping teacher discussions from wandering aimlessly. While a number of pressing issues are presented in the study manual, no claim was made that the manual was complete in every respect or that it included all the issues confronting secondary education. It was hoped that the issues on content, organization, administration, and instructional procedures would stimulate many worthwhile discussions upon the part of these participating on the state-wide program.

In the manual a series of questions were set up at the head of the different sections for the purpose of stimulating group discussions. The manual was designed so that subject matter following the questions provided factual material to augment the readers' own background of information. The manual made a distinct effort to present both sides of all issues. The real purpose of the manual was to arouse discussions with the hope that local faculties would be able to reach conclusions and present their viewpoints to the State Central Committee.

STUDY MANUAL

The second phase in curriculum building in Iowa was the publication of a second study manual—*A Proposed Design for Secondary Education in Iowa*. This work presented the background of the course of study materials. It reviewed the development of secondary education, pointed out those influences which have modified the curriculum, described the Iowa secondary curriculum as it then existed, reviewed the opinion of Iowa teachers regarding needed changes, announced a philosophy for secondary education, and lastly, proposed a design for secondary education in Iowa.

The actual production of the various courses of study was begun with the establishment of a number of broad area committees. Guided by the directives set up in the proposed manual on design, these committees were given the task of planning the curricular materials in their areas. Subject to the final approval of the Central Planning Group, these committees were responsible for the production of the curricula material in these respective area.

Many units in the various subject areas were prepared solely for evaluation purposes in certain selected schools. As an outgrowth of these experiments and the resulting criticisms the materials were re-worked and then polished before being printed.

At a series of meetings held for the distinct purpose of improving instruction and called by that name, Improvement of Instruction meetings, these materials were presented to the teachers of the state. The presentation was made by qualified persons in the various areas; many

times the committee members themselves presented their respective works. There was a high degree of implementation in this procedure.

The courses of study have now been in use in Iowa for several years. Our present problem concerning the improvement of the secondary curriculum revolves around an evaluation procedure of the existing courses of study. Our state department is beginning the search for sound bases for this procedure. When the criteria for evaluation becomes definite, and the method and technique for conducting the work have been decided upon, we will have the pattern complete for the actual work of beginning our evaluation process.

Once the process of evaluation is complete and final, the process of revision will begin. It is through the revision procedure that we, in Iowa, will attempt to continue to upgrade ourselves in the matter of curriculum development.

NATIONAL TRAINING LABORATORY IN GROUP DEVELOPMENT

After five years of pioneering research and experience in the relatively new field of training leaders in the skills and understandings necessary for developing effective groups, the National Training Laboratory in Group Development will hold an expanded four-week summer laboratory session at Gould Academy, Bethel, Maine. The dates will be from June 22 through July 18, 1952. Approximately 100 applicants will be accepted for this session. Persons involved in problems of working with groups in a training, consultant, or leadership capacity in any field are invited to apply. The purpose of the training program is to sensitize leaders in all fields to the existence and nature of the dynamic forces operating in the small group. This is organized so that each trainee group of 15-20 persons is enabled to use its own experience as a laboratory example of group development. Group skills of analysis and leadership are practiced through the use of role-playing and observer techniques. Concentrated clinics give training in the skills of the consultant and the trainer in human relations skills. There is also opportunity to explore the role of the group in the larger social environment in which it exists.

The NTLGD is sponsored by the Division of Adult Education Service of the NEA and the Research Center for Group Dynamics of the University of Michigan, with the co-operation of the universities of Chicago, Illinois, California, Ohio State, Antioch College, Teachers College, Columbia University, and other educational institutions. Its year-round research and consultation program is supported by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York. For further information, write to the NTLGD at 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Group XVIII (Monday)—TOPIC: What Should the Principal Do to Initiate and Operate a Life Adjustment Education Program in His School?

SUBTOPIC: How Can the Principal Develop Understanding of Education Needs in the School Community?

CHAIRMAN: T. H. Broad, Principal, Daniel Webster High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma

CONSULTANT:

Will French, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York; Chairman, Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, NASSP

RECORDER: Don Randall, Principal, Battle Creek Senior High School, Battle Creek, Michigan

HOW CAN THE PRINCIPAL DEVELOP UNDERSTANDING OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS IN THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY?

MATTHEW P. GAFFNEY

I AM limiting my remarks to working with parents and shall describe briefly one or two activities that have been carried on with parents of our school.

We have a well-developed Parents Association and among standing committees it has:

A. *Curriculum Committee* (40 members). This committee meets one day a month and is divided this year in subcommittees to study:

1. *Driver training*.
2. *How To Study*. Particularly as this affects the field of English and reading.
3. *Correlation*. There are at present several areas in which correlation of subjects takes place and the parents committee is interested in seeing this expand.
4. *The American Way of Life*. One committee is considering the necessity of this much used expression and discussing how developed it is at New Trier and further ways of developing it.

B. *Student Affairs Committee*. The educational needs of boys and girls are not confined to subject matter. They may be social, recreational, etc. The student affairs committee works closely with student committees and faculty committees and has met and solved some knotty problems.

Matthew P. Gaffney is Superintendent of the New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois.

C. The Program Committee. This committee has not only studied the overall program of the association, but once a year plans one all-inclusive meeting to bring major problems to all parents. Meetings in recent years have included college presidents on problems of higher education, panels of young alumni on immediate needs of the young adult, *etc.*

A recent successful activity has been a series of nine round table discussion meetings of parents of sophomore boys. The parents met by adviser room groups and at each meeting were present one father whose boys had graduated, one member of the school administration, and the sophomore boys' chairman and the group adviser. The parent of graduates introduced each meeting by a five-minute discussion on "What I would do differently if I had it to do over." Then the sophomore boys' chairman skillfully drew out discussion of problems and needs of sophomore boys.

Other opportunities for developing understanding of educational needs with parents have come through the following:

1. Adviser calls at every home.
2. Meeting of parents of all freshman girls with health and physical education staff.
3. Series of meeting of parents of all freshman girls by adviser rooms on problems immediate to freshman girls.
4. Meeting of all parents of juniors where problems immediate to all juniors have been discussed.

HOW CAN THE PRINCIPAL DEVELOP UNDERSTANDING OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS IN THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY?

DONALD ROE

IN discussing the topic, "How can the principal develop understanding of educational needs in the school community?", most of us probably will think of it in terms of the school principal helping others to develop an understanding of educational needs. A second look at this topic might lead you to believe that it concerns how the principal himself might develop an understanding of the educational needs in a community. Frankly, I feel both interpretations of the question deserve a great deal of consideration. Perhaps if we as principals had a greater understanding of the problem ourselves, we would be in a better position to offer leadership in developing it in laymen.

It is also possible that the two are interdependent and thus can be treated as one if thought of as a sharing process. Study and experience have indicated some techniques that I would like to pass

Donald Roe is Principal of the Oak Ridge High School, Oak Ridge, Tennessee.

along to you which may be used in developing understanding in a school community.

Two general methods are proposed. One is by active participation of laymen and a second is by interpretation of the school program to laymen. The ideal situation would be to have every one participate to the degree that his maturity gives him the responsibility for accepting the decisions in which he shares. Realistically speaking, it is not probable that this will happen in the next few years. Thus, the necessity for interpreting the program can be seen. This should not be thought of as selling the program. There is a basic difference between the two. In planning to use either method, it is wise to plan the activities to include three segments of the school community; namely, the staff, the students, and the laymen.

A PLANNED PROGRAM

Psychologically speaking, active participation is the best method of developing understanding. Some techniques using one or more of three segments of the school community mentioned which may be useful to you are:

1. The unmet needs technique.
2. Discussion in parent-teacher workshop groups.
3. Discussions in service clubs and civic groups.
4. Use of laymen in developing printed materials such as reports to the public.
5. Discussion in parent groups.
6. Organization of advisory citizen groups to study community needs.
7. Study of reports on follow-up studies of ex-students.
8. Panel discussions with the use of consultants in staff workshop program.
9. Study of the literature on the subject.
10. Use of questionnaires.
11. Employment of a public opinion poll.
12. Initiation of an evaluation study.

Most of us have used one or more of the methods suggested. Where many of us need to improve is in having a planned program using some of these methods more effectively instead of in a hit or miss situation. Too many of us tend to wait until a major problem arises concerning the school program before we really get busy developing understanding of the educational needs of the school community. A school that has developed an awareness of the purposes and needs of the school program will be in a much stronger position to have the salary schedule increased rather than coasting along for years and then going out on an all out publicity campaign a few months before a school board decision or tax election.

LAY PARTICIPATION

One of the best methods to get increased participation in any one of the techniques suggested is by having representatives of other

groups sit in on the discussion. Thus students and teachers can be included in many of the lay group meetings. The parent-teacher workshop technique is an attempt to combine two groups, and has proved very successful in our local situation.

Time does not permit discussion of any one of these techniques. In our own local situation we have found variations of the unmet needs technique the most fruitful. When we as leaders in the school community find some of our most severe critics develop an understanding of the needs of youth to the extent that they will fight for a program that will better meet these needs instead of keeping a "horse-carriage" curriculum, we will find the results justifying the effort. The increased understanding of the professional staff will also be heartwarming. And then it comes as quite a shock to some of us that we did not know or recognize as quickly as some of our own lay leaders the needs of the school community.

It is recognized from a realistic point of view that despite all the methods and procedures that can be used to encourage lay participation, many members of the school community will have little or no contact with the school program unless specific efforts are made to interpret the program to them. Some ways this can be done are:

1. Through bulletins
2. Through school performances
3. Through community meetings
4. Through the radio and press
5. Through audio-visual media.

A danger of the methods proposed is the ease with which this interpretation can take the form of selling the educational program. This selling could lead the school into a defensive attitude against just criticism. If care is taken to interpret the program honestly, such a danger can be avoided.

THROUGH RADIO AND PRESS

Interpreting the program through the radio and press is one technique all can use. One basic principle to be followed is always to be honest. If we can give the local newspapers reports of the program, anticipating such questions as how will the graduates do in college, with factual results of a study, it will not be necessary to go on the defensive when one or two isolated unfavorable reports reach the press. If the press has confidence in the school and its representatives, even unfavorable items concerning the program will be looked at constructively, with leaders in the community seeking ways of improving it.

Another word of caution in interpreting the program is not to frighten people with startling innovations. Modern education is not a startling innovation, but rather has been the result of good educational practices from the past and added new ones as scientific study and experimentation have shown them to be necessary for living in and

improving present day society. We must remember that regardless of how good an educational practice may be or how imperative an unmet need may be, it is worthless unless the public understands and believes in it if we are to meet the challenge.

AUDIO-VISUAL MEDIA

As another example, let us look at the last technique mentioned. The presentation of activities through audio-visual media can be one of the more effective ways of developing understanding of the educational needs of the school community, by showing how some of these needs are being met. Tape recordings of special or ordinary school activities should be of great interest to parent groups. Films or slides made by the commercial photography classes could depict some of the activities of the school program. During National Education Week, local theaters might show a trailer made by the schools. In this way some of the psychological factors involved in community pride could be used to stimulate interest on the part of laymen, students, and staff members in the way some of the needs of the school community are being met. This interest might become great enough to stimulate them to participate actively in other group activities to study further the needs of youth and how best to meet them.

SERIOUS PURPOSE

If each one of us as principal is serious in his attempt to develop understanding of the educational needs in our school communities, we must have faith that:

1. First, every individual in the school community is doing his or her best according to his understanding; and
2. Second, that each person wants to improve his understanding, whether it is apparent or not, and,
3. Third, that only through increasing the understanding of the educational needs of the school community can we hope to meet these needs and thus serve the purposes of education in a democracy.

HOW CAN THE PRINCIPAL DEVELOP UNDERSTANDING OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS IN THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY?

A. W. SALISBURY

IN ALL probability, one of the things which causes the most difficulty in the relationships between high school administrator and his faculty, or a high school administrator and faculty with the lay public in the community, is a lack of understanding. The past few years have seen a number of far-reaching changes in educational philosophy re-

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flected in curriculum changes. As we go from community to community, observing these changes in operation, we find all degrees of temperature of support for such changes. One community is heartily in favor and goes along very easily with any adjustments that are made in the high-school curriculum and program of studies. The next community is involved in a school-community fight over changes of emphasis in the local high school. Other schools represent all degrees of variation between these two extremes. Why is it that we find communities differing so in their acceptance of curriculum changes and revisions, as the result of change in educational philosophy? My own opinion is that some place along the line the understanding of what is involved in these changes has not been too clear on the part of the school community. As the result of a lack of understanding, the lay people have not been carried along in the educational thinking of the high-school administrator and faculty. They do not know the *why* of many of the changes that have been made. One of the paramount jobs of any school administrator is the initiation of a program of public information and public relations that will assist him and his faculty in making the desirable improvements that must come if we are to face up to the challenging problem of meeting the Imperative Needs of Youth.

LEADERSHIP OF THE ADMINISTRATOR

There are probably a number of steps that must be taken by any school administrator in establishing this rapport that is so essential, if he is to carry on the type of curriculum revision that must be done if the school administrator is to face his responsibilities. Obviously, the first thing that needs to be done is that the high-school administrator himself must become very well aware of the need for study and consideration of what desirable changes should be made. Such changes, of course, must be made in the light of the needs of youth. Numerous faculty meetings must be devoted to an analysis of the question, "What are the needs of youth of this day and what needs must youth meet in order to be equipped to handle the problems that will face them in the not-too-distant future?" Faculty members must be concerned about the Needs of Youth, so that they may assist the high-school principal in his job of interpreting these needs to the students and the school community.

There are a number of things we might call implements of investigation to assist us in arriving at conclusions regarding the needs of youth. Each of these is designed to uncover needs that many of us are not aware actually exist. The process of discovering these needs is good for any faculty and community because it involves each one of us in a very real endeavor to discover those things that will influence our entire school program. The entire process of planning, carrying out, evaluating, summarizing, and interpreting the information acquired

as a result of any one of these studies will be of incalculable value in making the community, as well as the school, aware of the reasons for the existence of secondary schools in America today.

SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS

The following are some specific suggestions: (1) read and discuss such materials as are suggested by the U. S. Office of Education in its bulletin *Developing Life Adjustment Education in the Local School*; (2) make surveys of various phases of community activities to discover data which will help identify the Life Needs of Youth; (3) encourage a program of intra-school visitation of teachers; (4) invite parents and other interested lay people to visit the school during an evening or during the day when students are not in attendance to visit classrooms and discuss the work with the various teachers involved; (5) study out-of-school youth of school age, utilizing guidance facilities and follow-up surveys; (6) study pupils now in school; (7) conduct an exhaustive study of graduates of the school to try to discover the areas in which the school might have contributed more to meeting the needs of these graduates; (8) make an exhaustive study of the school leavers, discover why they left school and get their ideas of the strengths and weaknesses of the local school program; (9) conduct pre-school and post-school workshops for teachers to explore, with consultants if necessary, the real life needs of students.

There are a multitude of other suggestions that we might offer to initiate a program of study and I am sure that many other things will suggest themselves to people who are really interested in doing the job that needs to be done.

The problem of interpreting findings of such information as the above to the lay public is a very difficult one. It may be done by visitation to the school by the school community. It may be done by means of the local press and radio. It may be done by providing programs and discussions for various community groups, such as the service clubs and professional study groups. It may be done through the parent-teacher organizations. It may be done in any or all of these ways and we need to be continually aware of opportunities to "spread the Gospel." Regardless of the method that is used by the high-school administrator to carry his faculty, student body, and constituents with him in his thinking of educational philosophy, the job has to be done. It is a long task and one that has many pitfalls in it, but it is a task that also has its rewards, which will result in the provision of an improved educational program for boys and girls. From this fact, the high-school administrator must receive a great deal of satisfaction.

HOW CAN THE PRINCIPAL DEVELOP UNDERSTANDING OF
EDUCATION NEEDS IN THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY?

SPENCER M. RICE

THE effectiveness of the school's program and the support it receives from the community depends upon the understanding of the program and the confidence which has resulted from that understanding. All of us know that those schools which have been successfully interpreted to the community have fared better than those which have not.

Though the concept has evolved in comparatively recent years, we all agree, undoubtedly, that the principal shares a large portion of the responsibility for this interpretation. Increasingly, the superintendent and his staff rely upon the principal to create understanding of the program for which he is responsible. The principal's role in creating understanding of educational needs is particularly significant as it relates to life adjustment education. The importance of his responsibility is found in the significance of his leadership in determining what the philosophy and objectives of the school shall be and the nature of the program to implement them.

It is believed that the typical American community is ready to accept changes in the school program in the direction of life adjustment goals, provided it understands the "what" and the "why" of these goals. This has been our experience in introducing functional education by the "infiltration" method with the addition of courses in family living, elementary psychology or human relations, driver training, and co-operative work classes, and with the expansion of the recreational and the health and physical education programs, as well as the use in old courses of new and functional content and methods of instruction.

WHAT, THEN, CAN THE PRINCIPAL DO?

The principal can lead in activities which employ scores of techniques and methods of creating understanding (bulletins to the home, open house, school visitation, education week observances, visits to the home, radio, newspaper, commencement programs, talks before community groups, and others). These are valuable and should be used so as to produce as full and effective results as possible.

The principal can work most successfully, however, with those who actually participate in the development of the school program and who carry it out. The people who live and work in the school (the teacher and the pupil), and parents and other laymen who are led to

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participate in planning the educational program and in solving school problems constitute the most fertile group and the best media with and through whom the principal can work.

Examples of the values which accrue in understanding and support are too prevalent in recorded form and in common experience to require documentation in a brief talk. The principal who provides dynamic and purposeful leadership in co-operative planning and development of the school program and for co-operative attack upon school problems will find that his community becomes conscious of the needs of the school.

The conception of a desirable program becomes clearly and more widely understood, and current practices, available facilities, adequacies and inadequacies of the educational program become known.

Because life adjustment education centers around the real needs of youth, the principal has a very definite and primary responsibility in creating among the school staff and the parents an understanding of the characteristics of youth and the developmental problems of adolescence. As one means toward this objective the Spartanburg High School is endeavoring to use the Parent-Teachers Association. Last month under its sponsorship, a measure of understanding was reached in a "Youth Development Clinic" which presented discussions on the physical, emotional, social, and spiritual development of adolescence. The institute was led by a physician, a clinical psychologist, a psychiatrist, and a religious leader, all from the local community.

It is believed that better understanding of the youth himself is one of the best ways to create insight into educational needs.

Finally, the principal should not lose heart if the entire community does not become excited about the school and its needs. He should be certain, however, that the staff, the students, and at least a few representative laymen understand them well. If he is successful with these, the circle of understanding will continue to grow.

HOW CAN THE PRINCIPAL DEVELOP UNDERSTANDING OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS IN THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY?

EDSON M. BAILEY

ALTHOUGH the school community is identical with the greater community of which it is a part, for the purposes of this discussion, I shall define the school community as consisting of the Board of Education, the faculty, the parents, and the student body. All must seek a common understanding of educational needs; all must plan together to create ways and means for meeting these needs, and all must work

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together to satisfy these needs. The task is not so much seeking recognition of these needs, as it is of doing something about them.

Any description of a school community, as I have defined it, would include a conscientious Board of Education whose members give freely of their time and energies, who seek solution of educational problems with awareness that only so much can be done with a constantly depreciating tax dollar. It would include a faculty approximately seventy-five per cent of whom have been trained in the liberal arts tradition, who are subject-matter specialists, who, while conscious of educational needs, have no conception of how to meet them other than by a traditional subject matter approach, and who fear the loss of their present sense of security if any other approach is attempted. It would include parents striving, for the most part, to give their children more than they had in their youth, with some thirty to forty per cent of the mothers working in order to do so, and in so doing depriving them of some of the motivations resulting from unfilled wants. We would find parents working loyally in PTA's and other civic organizations to bring about better schools, and some who give the schools the full responsibility of making decent citizens of their boys and girls. It would include a vast array of youth, some of whose needs are met by traditional subject-matter programs; some who see in such a program no contribution to preparation or success and happiness in the hundreds of jobs they will certainly fill—and none of whom have been born and bred in the tradition of the American system of free enterprise as most of us knew it in our youth. It is in this school community that the principal must help in the development of an understanding of educational needs and a program to meet them.

Like all other jobs of the principal, there is no magic formula for solving the problem, and, like all other problems, it will not solve itself. Winning the co-operation of all the elements of a school community necessitates considering all points of view. Boards of education will be interested in the cost of the program; faculty members will be concerned in their part in the program measured in terms of their own preparation and security; parents will be concerned that it enriches the lives of their youngsters, and the youngsters that it meets immediate present needs and the somewhat more remote needs of the future. Therefore, compromise and a willingness to compromise become basic characteristics preliminary to any discussion and planning.

It is important that each school community formulate its own statement of educational needs. So far as secondary education is concerned, a good part of the educational thought of the past half century has been devoted to just this, resulting in such expressions as the cardinal principles of secondary education, the imperative needs of youth, the revised evaluation criteria, the bulletin of the Bureau of Youth Services of the Connecticut Department of Education on the Reorganization, Reorientation, and Re-Tooling of Secondary Educa-

tion, and scores of others of a similar nature. The monthly bulletins of our own National Association over the past few years contain more than enough material on which to base such discussion and planning. Last year the Life Adjustment Education Commission published, in mimeograph form, a bibliography of such material. A community's statement of its educational needs will easily come from a discussion of any, or all, of such material, and the acceptance, or rejection, of what may, or may not, be pertinent to that community.

The principal is responsible for obtaining information and initiating discussion aimed at formulating a statement of educational needs. The amount and variety of existing information is so well known that immediate attention can be given to the organization of discussion. The nature of this organization should be determined by existing procedures in each community. Little will be gained by insistence on new methods. The extent of participation by all elements in this discussion will also be determined by existing procedures. Early discussions will probably be on the faculty level, and these will soon demonstrate the need for wider participation. In all cases, the initiating of such discussion and planning will not evolve from so-called democratic administrative practices. There may have to be a modicum of compulsion behind it. On a much larger scale, of course, Theodore Roosevelt had a good phrase for it, "Speak softly and carry a big stick." Faculty, department, and committee meetings, individual teacher interest, investigation and experimentation, workshops, and summer study are some of many available agencies ready to be utilized. It is important to recognize, and emphasize again, that teachers are aware of these needs. For the most part they are awaiting direction and encouragement before doing something about them.

Regardless of the extent of participation in discussion and planning, all elements in the school community should be kept informed of the progress of the working groups. This, too, is the responsibility of the principal. Most Boards of Education have a committee on educational policies which should be consulted and informed. They should approve all plans contemplating modifications in curriculum or administration. From time to time, the whole faculty should be appraised of the progress of committees or departments. PTA's, service clubs, the school paper, the local press, the radio, and Parent Nights will all serve as forums for reporting on the work of discussion and planning groups. While the principal is responsible for such reporting, he should not hesitate to use students and faculty members in this activity. It not only gives them welcome recognition for the work they are doing, but it also serves to broaden the contact of school personnel with the community at large.

Some mention should be made of the principal's responsibility in scheduling the time and duties of faculty members so that this discussion and planning will not be an added burden on our teachers. Some

teachers are better prepared to carry on this work than others. They should be freed from other responsibilities in order to do so.

The important thing is for the principal to do something. What he does may not solve all of the perplexing problems of secondary education. If he makes mistakes, experience will correct them. The most appealing characteristic of the Life Adjustment Education Program is its lack of formula or code for directing our secondary schools. The whole movement is a recognition of the successes and failures of our schools. The National and State Commissions seek to help each of us in our own way to emphasize the successes and minimize the failures. "It is later than you think" is an over-worked expression, but it fits here. The time for action in this matter is short. Already many of us are devoting our time and energy to building programs. Back in the fourth grade is the crest of a tidal wave of boys and girls which five years from now will engulf our high schools. Whether we shall have recognized their needs and be ready for them depends upon what we do now.

Group XVIII (Tuesday)—TOPIC: What Should the Principal Do to Initiate and Operate a Life Adjustment Education Program in His School?

SUBTOPIC: How Can Common Learnings, Core Curriculum, and Improved Subject Offerings Be Used in Life Adjustment Education?

CHAIRMAN: *T. H. Broad*, Principal, Daniel Webster High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma

CONSULTANT: *Will French*, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York; Chairman, Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, National Association of Secondary-School Principals

RECORDER: *Don Randall*, Principal, Battle Creek Senior High School, Battle Creek, Michigan

HOW CAN COMMON LEARNINGS, CORE CURRICULUM, AND IMPROVED SUBJECT OFFERINGS BE USED IN LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION?

LLOYD S. MICHAEL

THIS presentation is concerned with curriculum planning practices which are constructive and promising for life adjustment education. The suggested practices aim at the improvement of education for citizenship, home and family living, and work. These are the principal

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areas of the secondary-school curriculum that are receiving major emphasis in the program of life adjustment education. It is proposed that these desirable curriculum changes may be facilitated by the development of common learnings courses, the core studies, and improved subject offerings.

The need for the reorganization of the secondary-school curriculum grows out of our recognition of the obligation of the school to youth and to American society. The need is apparent to most educators and to many laymen. The confusion results from our inability to define a curriculum plan that will contribute maximally to the purposes of life adjustment education. A functional curriculum provides the best approach to education for all youth. According to Featherstone, functional education means:

Education for use rather than for mere possession; education for a reasonably direct and obvious contribution to the improvement of daily living here and now; education for all aspects of an individual's necessary and inescapable involvement in community life—his role as a person, as citizen, as homemaker, as worker, and as general beneficiary of the cultural heritage.¹

These goals of functional education are the goals of the effective secondary school.

LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION

The basic purposes of life adjustment education are not new. Secondary education—available to all, enrolling all, and meaningful to all—has long been a part of America's hopes and aspirations for its youth.² Many high schools have made significant progress in adjusting and expanding their school programs to serve all youth. Many more schools have not provided appropriate educational programs for all youth of high-school age. This movement has as its purpose to facilitate and accelerate changes in our secondary schools in the direction of life adjustment education for every youth. The definition of Life Adjustment Education was stated by the Commission in its early deliberations to be:

Life Adjustment Education is designed to equip all American youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society as home members, workers, and citizens. It is concerned especially with a sizable proportion of youth of high-school age (both in school and out) whose objectives are less well served by our schools than the objectives of preparation for either a skilled occupation or higher education.³

In later regional and national conferences the position of the Commission was clarified relative to the so-called sixty per cent. It was wisely pointed out that there are not, nor should there be, separate

¹Wm. B. Featherstone, *A Functional Curriculum for Youth*. New York: American Book Co., 1950, p. vii.

²U. S. Office of Education, *Vitalizing Secondary Education*. Bulletin 1951, No. 3, Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, p. 3.

³*Ibid.* p. 1.

and clearly defined groups of pupils in a school population. The Commission emphasized that the pupil should be dealt with as an individual and not as a member of a particular group. Life adjustment education is for all youth of high-school age, even though there should be a special concern for the so-called sixty per cent.

The more common activities of most people are related to their homes, their work, and their obligations as citizens. Education for home, work, and citizenship are the three important areas of the high-school curriculum of most concern to the Life Adjustment Education Commission in its action program to improve secondary education. The five other common areas of living for all youth—ethical and moral living, self-realization, the use of leisure, health and safety, and consumer education—are important but are generally implied in education for home, work, and citizenship.

The Commission has further indicated that life adjustment means organizing and reorganizing schools to achieve useful living purposes. It means directing the activities of a school and adapting the content and methods of all courses so that each year all pupils are being prepared for important areas of living.⁴ "If we are to educate all, we must educate each, and the whole of each" is the basic concept. It involves a detailed and cumulative study of each pupil in order that the teacher and the pupil working co-operatively may plan appropriate learning experiences in citizenship education, home and family living, and education for work.

COMMON LEARNINGS AND CORE CURRICULUM

The Life Adjustment program has encouraged rather widespread experimentation in general education as one means of removing the obstacles to the functionalization and democratization of secondary education. The core or common learnings course is being developed in many schools as an effective approach to a functional program which seeks to meet the common needs of all youth of the high-school level. Douglass describes the core and recommends its use in an adequate life adjustment program. He states:

The most promising approach to developing a life adjustment program is the core courses. The core is sometimes referred to as common learnings, general education, or basic living. It may be defined as a block of time within the school day during which pupils and teacher have full and free opportunity to identify and solve common and meaningful problems in all areas of living.⁵

Faunce and Bossing⁶ identify four characteristics of core courses that distinguish them from conventional subject-matter courses as:

⁴Harl R. Douglass, *Education for Life Adjustment*. New York: Ronald Press, 1950, p. 9.

⁵*Ibid.* pp. 300-1.

⁶Roland C. Faunce and Nelson L. Bossing, *Developing the Core Curriculum*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951, p. 8.

(1) their freedom from subject-matter patterns and their emphasis upon vital life-problem situations; (2) their emphasis upon group problem-solving; (3) their use of a long block of time; and (4) their emphasis on guidance by the classroom teacher.

Alberty makes a careful analysis of the current conceptions of the core curriculum now functioning in a number of secondary schools. His analysis results in certain basic assumptions about the core and its relationship to the total school program. His interpretations are:

(1) that the part of the curriculum designated as core is required of all students on the ground that it provides for the values, understandings, and skills needed for all citizens, irrespective of special interest; (2) that it involves subject-matter from several fields of knowledge (e.g., science, social science, the arts); (3) that it is allotted a block of time ranging from one-third to two-thirds of the school day; (4) that one or more subjects or fields of knowledge (e.g., physical education and/or mathematics) may be required outside the core; and (5) that a number of elective courses or activities are to be provided outside the core to meet the needs and interests of special groups of individual students.⁷

Many interesting and significant curriculum innovations have been made within the framework of core and common learning courses as effective means of implementing life adjustment education. Many schools have progressed a long way toward the development of educational services useful to each pupil and to the enrichment of his daily living. These local school practices are usually identified with education for useful work, good citizenship, and effective family living.

A few schools have attempted a major reorganization of the curriculum. The "life functions" approach which is based upon the problems of adult living in our society is one type of curriculum development. A basic classification is made of the major functions or areas of living, including citizenship, making a home, and securing a living. These areas of human activity constitute the basis for the structure of the core curriculum. Another innovation in curriculum development is the "adolescent-needs" approach. This procedure is concerned with the needs, interests, and problems of the adolescent in our society, and are dealt with in the core curriculum irrespective of subject fields.

In many schools the core or common learnings course is structured along more traditional subject lines. The practice is growing to change the basis of instruction from subject-matter content to a consideration of problems of more immediate interest and concern to pupils. Problem areas are frequently introduced, such as personal and social adjustment, personal and family finance, producer-consumer economics, understanding my body, improving personality, making a living, choosing and preparing for a career, and community living. Many of these

⁷Harold Alberty, *et al*, *How to Develop a Core Program in the High School*. A Handbook for Teachers and Administrators. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1949, p. vi.

learning activities have resulted in effective education for life adjustment. The flexibility of the program, the accessibility of a block of time, and the receptive attitude of many core teachers are all important factors in vitalizing the school program.

Another interesting development in the curriculum in some schools has been the utilization of the core as a life adjustment course. Without interference with the regular curriculum pattern, a school may introduce a problems course patterned after the core and its distinct features. A Freshman Problems course may have as its purpose the orientation of pupils to school and community living. A Sophomore Problems course may emphasize personal and social adjustment. In the junior year the core may deal with the problems of making a living. Seniors may concern themselves with planning for college, work, and family living. Such courses may be introduced on an elective basis and later made a requirement. The emphasis upon the problem-solving approach, the high level of teacher-pupil planning, the guidance role of the classroom teachers, and the importance of human relations are values that schools recognize in the core as a life adjustment offering.

The core or common learnings course is considered by many educators as the best solution for meeting the common life needs of secondary pupils, and the most promising procedure in the development of the life adjustment program. Caswell⁸ affirms that it is the first and most basic move in the reconstruction of the American high school. While an increasing number of secondary schools are introducing courses in core, common learnings, or basic living, it is obvious that their ranks are small in comparison with the thousands of secondary schools that follow the traditional curriculum pattern. If life adjustment education is to have a significant impact upon a sizable percentage of our high schools, curriculum changes will probably have to develop along other lines.

IMPROVED SUBJECT OFFERINGS

Instituting a core or common learnings course need not be the starting point for developing a life adjustment program. There are other approaches that may prove more practical and successful in many secondary schools. Douglass suggests three additional approaches in the direction of education for life adjustment. His procedures are: (1) some faculties may decide to incorporate life adjustment experiences in the subjects required of all pupils; (2) another way of getting started on the development of a life adjustment program is by incorporating into all subjects in the curriculum those problems which are significant to youth in one or two areas of living; and (3) some faculties may decide not to disturb the existing curriculum but, instead, to plan new courses to be added to the instructional program as required courses.⁹

⁸Hollis L. Caswell, *et al*, *The American High School: Its Responsibility and Opportunity*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946, p. 189.

⁹Douglass, *op. cit.* pp. 299-300.

The first procedure suggests that the constants or required subjects should include content and experiences of life adjustment education. In most secondary schools, courses in English, social studies, physical education, and health are required of all pupils. Other courses, particularly first-year mathematics and science, are required offerings in many schools. In the area of citizenship education many units of work have been developed around personal and social problems and are taught in required courses. Such units which frequently are found in school curricula are: safety education, community health, consumer education, conservation, atomic energy, and human relations. Units which contribute to education for home and family living are sometimes integrated in required offerings. These may include: understanding ourselves and others, personal and family finance, nutrition, boy-girl relationships, and adolescent development. There are units within required courses which help the pupil in education for work. Among these are personality development, occupations, choosing your vocation, preparing for a job, and work opportunities in the community. A reasonably adequate life adjustment program may be developed through the inclusion of these learning activities in the required courses.

The second approach to improve subject offerings is the study by the entire staff of one or more areas of living that should be included in both the required and elective offerings of the school. Curriculum studies of this type have been effective in developing programs of health education, sex education, conservation, and citizenship education. The purpose is to institute a unified, co-ordinated program in an area of human activity which is common to all youth. Such a program could be initiated in the area of home and family living. A part of the program could be developed through required courses, other phases of family life education would be taught in separate courses, and special school activities could be planned to provide other learning experiences to the enrichment of family life.

The other suggestion is to incorporate new and required courses in the instructional program of the school. These added courses would be concerned with the common life problems of youth. Some schools that have used this approach consider it an effective means of initiating a program of life adjustment. While the already crowded high-school curriculum and the apparent opposition to additional constants are serious deterrents to the widespread adoption of this procedure, there is evidence that many schools are adding new required courses. Almost two per cent of all public secondary day-school pupils are enrolled in single-period orientation or social living courses. These courses are most frequent in the first year of regular and senior high schools. In addition, almost as many pupils are enrolled in single-period courses labeled group guidance, personal problems, human relations, and social adjustment.¹⁰ Courses in driver training, conservation, consumer

¹⁰U. S. Office of Education, *Offerings and Enrollments in High-School Subjects 1948-1949*. Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, 1951, p. 27.

buying, safety, family relationships, child development, and related science are indicators that the high-school curriculum is developing along functional lines.

The movement to replace school subjects with a broad program based upon developmental needs of youth and areas of living has made some progress in grades seven, eight, and nine, but it has made little headway in the three upper grades of the secondary school. Life adjustment education, within the structure of the traditional subject curriculum, has made significant progress. Numerous new courses have been introduced. Important changes in emphasis have been effected in existing courses. Pupil-teacher planning, valuable instructional materials and aids, use of community resources, and curriculum planning are but a few of the changes that have improved subject offerings.

CONCLUSIONS

The need for curriculum changes in the secondary school arises out of our realization of the obligation of the school to youth and to American society. Life Adjustment Education seeks to equip all youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society as home members, workers, and citizens. It is essentially an action program in education for useful work, good citizenship, and effective home and family living.

Many significant curriculum innovations have been made through core and common learnings courses as probably the most promising approach to implementing a program of life adjustment. Core is used to designate many different types of curriculum organization and widely differing programs. Basically, it represents a more functional approach to the common needs of youth and the major areas of living. For the rank and file of secondary schools, the traditional pattern of subject-matter emphasis is more prevalent. Education for life adjustment in these schools will probably result when life adjustment experiences are incorporated in the required subjects, common life needs are introduced into all subjects in the curriculum, or new courses with life adjustment experiences are added to the educational program as required courses.

SUMMER VACATION SAID 'VANISHING'

That long summer vacation seems doomed to vanish from the American educational scene as completely as the little red schoolhouse. Also on its way out is the Saturday holiday. Who says so? In a recent report, a group of experts from the Harvard Graduate School of Education predicted a 207-day school year in place of the present 180-day one, 37 Saturday morning sessions annually, and lengthening of the present school day by an hour and a half. These hours may be in vogue in 1960, the group said.—*VEA News*.

HOW CAN COMMON LEARNINGS, CORE CURRICULUM, AND IMPROVED SUBJECT OFFERINGS BE USED IN LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION?

GEORGE R. BROAD

THE principal of any high school, be it large or small, must be very careful to consider the local community before a program of Life Adjustment Education can be developed. Let us assume, for a moment, that we have a high school in a community where the "vociferous patrons" are college prep people. Generally speaking, this will mean that thirty per cent of the students ask for college transcripts and perhaps fifteen per cent actually enroll in some college.

Experience seems to show that much influence will be exerted by these people. Does this necessarily mean that only an academic program can be offered? Does it mean that standards must be lowered for those not of college entrance caliber? Does it mean that state departments of education will deal harshly with people or school systems who try to break with tradition and give youngsters experiences in everyday life? Does it mean that regional accrediting agencies will drop such a school from affiliation?

Given a satisfactory answer to these questions, it is rather difficult to imagine a school principal who would hesitate to launch a program of Life Adjustment Education. This program could be through common learning, core curriculum, or improved subject offerings, and the effects might well be similar.

Question one seems to have been answered time and time again. One trouble with answers appears to be that, all too often, they fall on deaf ears. The Eight Year Study,¹ the Southern Study,² the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program,³ and others show definitely that the traditional high-school college prep program gives little or no advantage in preparing students for college, yet most of us continue the pattern year after year.

Point two is rather a high note for many people. Let us but mention standards and, if they are high enough, ears prick up, eyes light up and the academic feeling of security is definitely established. May we be forgiven if we forget, and I mean forget, that the standards as

¹Giles, H. H., McCutchen, S. P., and Zechiel, A. N., *Exploring the Curriculum*. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1942.

²Information can be secured from Frank C. Jenkins, 230 Spring Street, N.W., Atlanta 3, Georgia.

³Information can be secured from the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois.

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now used are seldom, if ever, aimed at the youth in the local community. Skeptics may doubt but, before making a decision, a check of dropouts might be revealing.

Point three can be almost wholly discarded. In a two-day conference held at Teachers' College, Columbia University, before the National Association of Secondary-School Principals' meeting held in New York City in 1951, representatives of almost every state department of education were present. When questioned on restrictions imposed by state departments on the development of Life Adjustment Education, not one indicated restrictions of any kind, which might hamper a developmental program.

Point four seems scarcely worth consideration but, for the benefit of those who doubt, let us check the Michigan program, the developments in the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Middle States Association, or any other area agency. While some may be dominated by colleges, investigation will show that traditionalism is far from its dominant position of twenty years ago. One suspects that the college people would like the help of public school administrators and teachers in their teacher training program.⁴

Again assuming that answers favorable to Life Adjustment Education developmental programs have been reached in the statements above, what can the principal do to initiate a program of Life Adjustment Education in his school? This question pre-supposes, of course, that all principals are familiar with Life Adjustment Education—its history, philosophy and objectives.

At the junior high-school level, core curriculum or common learnings are relatively simple as no credit, Carnegie units, *etc.*, are necessary. Many students have a full-day's program with one or two teachers. Physical education and music or art may alternate. Local situations, housing, and other considerations usually govern.

At the senior high-school level, conditions change, the influences in questions one, two, three and four become factors. Many principals try to set programs based on standards and requirements. This might be a laudable practice except that it sets the school back into the pattern severely criticized in the Prosser resolution.

Can we do anything? That is a question only the local principal can answer. If he is content to go on with the *status quo*, the college prep student will probably do as well as ever; the non-college student may do well, but little, if any, of his success will be attributable to his four years in high school. But if the high-school principal believes in the findings of the Prosser Committee and really has the welfare of all students at heart, much can be done.

⁴Alberty, Harold, *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum*. New York, The MacMillan Company, 1948.

This writer has little sympathy and less tolerance for the terminology with its itinerant debates developed in the last fifteen to twenty years. With the permission of our readers, let us consider Life Adjustment Education. Let us think of Life Adjustment Education as a program to meet some of the *needs* (immediate and future) of all the students in a given school. Surely no principal will attempt to set up a program without first making a careful check of the local community. Points to be studied might well include:

1. Job opportunities locally
2. Studies of dropouts
3. Resources available in local community
4. Philosophy of faculty and school
5. Persons available and capable on staff for Life Adjustment Education program
6. Services—consultant, *etc.*
7. Needs of local students

With this information the principal has an additional responsibility which is probably the most difficult to solve.⁵ Shall we attempt a program based on core curriculum, common learnings, or improved subject offerings? Improved subject offerings perhaps have dominated most curricular patterns at the high-school level. A look at improved subject offerings shows that it is an effort to compromise.⁶ Many of us are involved, so let us see what can be done. Homemaking education with its extensions into home and family life, human relations, child development, *etc.*, gives fine experiences. Vocational trades with emphasis on auto-mechanics, radio, electricity, and sheet metal are fine pre-work experiences. Secretarial training, advanced shorthand, bookkeeping, and many other commercial subjects help. Safety education and driver training, the use of Career Days, development of student councils, and many clubs such as Future Homemakers, Future Farmers, Future Teachers, and 4-H contribute. Other efforts at Life Adjustment Education are in action, many of which are good.

In conclusion let us remember that Life Adjustment Education is aimed at one hundred per cent of the school population. Programs aimed at a few who are not successful academically are not Life Adjustment Education in the real sense. They are merely efforts to hold the students involved until they are old enough to drop out. Many programs have failed for lack of community understanding. The wise principal spends much time in planning with parents, teachers, and students. The parents particularly must understand or the program will be in grave danger of failing.

⁵Alberty, *op cit.*

⁶*Ibid.*

HOW CAN COMMON LEARNINGS, CORE CURRICULUM
AND IMPROVED SUBJECT OFFERINGS BE USED
IN LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION

D. E. DEAN

LIFE Adjustment Education has for its purpose the equipping of all American youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society as home members, workers, and citizens. It is concerned especially with a sizable proportion of youth of high-school age (both in school and out) whose objectives are less well served by our schools than the objectives of preparation for either a skilled occupation or higher education.

The implication of this definition is clear; namely, that every American youth is entitled, as a part of his natural heritage, to four years of happy and profitable high-school experience based on a deep understanding of both his present and probable future needs. Such experiences are due to him regardless of his abilities, interests, home background, economic status, limitation, and needs. This is the hope of the American school system, the objective which motivates desirable school legislation, and the goal set by a large majority of parents for their children.

Many well-known deterring factors, however, operate to prevent the accomplishment of this ideal. Many of these, unfortunately, originate within the present elementary- and secondary-school curriculums with their organizations based largely on subjects in preference to organization based on the commonly accepted objectives of education. Thus the Prosser Resolution rightfully assumes that the needs, interests, and abilities have not been well served as shown by the facts: (1) that more than a fifth of the youth do not enter high school, (2) that an appalling number (more than forty per cent) who do enter quit before being graduated, and (3) that many of those remaining in school are left to engage in educational activities so unrelated to everyday needs of life that, when they are graduated, they are not well adjusted to life. There has never been a time when more than seventy-three per cent of the persons fourteen through seventeen years of age were in high school.

As further proof for the assumptions of the Prosser Resolution that the schools are failing in the areas of life adjustment, permit me to quote a conversation which took place several months ago between Dr. Ginsberg, Dr. Young—two Columbia professors—and General Eisenhower, then president of Columbia, as reported in *Time Magazine*:

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"During the war," Ginsberg said, "we were shocked to find that our human resources weren't as strong as we had believed."

"That's true," Eisenhower said. "I remember one time in Africa when we had only four divisions in the field, and I was in desperate need of men. I found we had 6,000 men in hospitals in Africa unavailable for combat—and not one of them had suffered a wound. Their emotional and spiritual strength had left them."

"We still have 411,000 GI's in hospitals," said Ginsberg, "all wartime mental casualties. And during the war, medical boards rejected more than two million men because of mental disabilities."

"It's strange," reflected Eisenhower. "We live in a country which offers its citizens unprecedented opportunities—and yet millions of our citizens are in no mental condition to take advantage of them."

"And we don't know why," Young said. "We can't even consider a cure until we find the cause."

Further, studies of some of the freest-spending schools in the country show that the secondary schools are not doing too well in another area of life adjustment; namely, that of social living. Dorothy Barclay, writing in the *"New York Times"* for January 8, 1952, says:

Of twelve areas studied, no other appeared so weak as that concerned with education with family living. Whereas sixty per cent of the 5,000 teachers interviewed reported major use of techniques concerned with teaching reading, writing, arithmetic, and speech, only ten per cent reported that they were consistently using worthwhile practices leading to the improvement of family living.

Most of us will have to agree, I believe, that a program of home and family relations which might be expected to include consideration of personal relationships, consumer education, health and home nursing, first aid and safety, home management, nutrition, child welfare, citizenship responsibility, moral and spiritual standards is lacking in most of the schools of the country.

With this lack of emphasis upon adjustment education, it is not difficult to determine the cause of the great human erosion in our school system. Sufficient time and attention are not being given to that proportion of the school program that is considered essential for all the students to experience. Paul Collier says that: "When large numbers of youth drop out of school before graduation because of economic factors, lack of interest or lack of challenge to ability, necessity to conform to arbitrary academic standards, adherence to rigid curricula, lack of personal assistance in a host of individual problem areas, and for many other reasons, it is adequate testimony to the fact that the significant needs are not being met."

If, therefore, the causes for dissatisfaction on the part of high-school youth are to be removed, it is apparent that there must come about a reorganization and revitalization of the entire curriculum in such a way that it contributes in a functional way to the welfare of

boys and girls. This reorganization will not come from without, or from above; rather, it will be worked out from within by the faculty, students, and lay people pooling their efforts to bring about a better selection of learning experiences. It will not entail a lot of new courses added to an already full day; neither does it entail the elimination of subject matter. Suggestions for improvement will be largely concerned with improving subject matter to the end that it will deal with the problems of living, and with helping the teacher to be more discriminatory in the choice of teaching methods. Heretofore, much of the subject matter had little relation to anything the students would ever do, and the methods of teaching were those designed for textbook mastery. Important areas of life adjustment and the behavior characteristics desirable in each area will be determined. Learning experiences will be proposed and evaluated to produce the desired behavior.

When the student, under this reorganized curriculum, begins to realize that his school experiences have meaning and value; when he feels that his needs are being met; and when the appeal is greater than that of any of the factors which would pull him away from school, then will the school's holding power prevent the tragedy of his dropping out of school.

What are the goals, or objectives, of all living on which a reorganization for life adjustment will take place? In answer, the bulletin on *Life Adjustment For Every Youth* says:

1. There are needs for improving the health of our people and for conserving our natural resources.
2. There are needs for strengthening the family and stabilizing our practices for ethical living.
3. There are needs for defining our foreign policy and governing ourselves in a more responsible fashion.
4. There are needs for placing and keeping our economic machinery in balance and for making more recreative our use of leisure time.

The bulletin adds further that "it is apparent that American adults are sorely tried in their efforts to solve the problems forced upon them by the conditions of modern living. Upon those who have a faith that schools can and do make a contribution to intelligent adult behavior, there rests an obligation for improving the schools.

Carl Franzen, writing in the October, 1951, (page 102) BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals explains the objectives in this manner:

Everyone of us must learn how to take the best care of his own health, physical, as well as mental.... We must learn how to spend our spare time profitably to ourselves as well as to others.... We must learn how to carry on a happy home life, how to live agreeably in a community that may embrace even the whole world, and how to conduct ourselves as responsible citizens of a political unit. We must have guidance in all that pertains to the development of our own individualities, we must prepare ourselves to earn a living, and we must learn how to spend our money wisely.

Upon analyzing these objectives in the light of common learnings, general education, and core courses, one is struck by the great similarities existing. In fact, in my opinion, they are all referring to one and the same thing, namely that aspect of the total curriculum which is basic for all the students. Local situations, of course, will call for different variations.

IMPROVEMENTS THAT CAN BE MADE

In view, then, of the weaknesses of the present school programs which have been previously mentioned and in keeping with the goals of adjustment education, what are some of the important improvements which can be made in the present school services to children?

First, if headway is to be made in achieving adjustment education, it is evident that the issue of general *versus* specialized education must be resolved. Every youth should have a good basic general education, the scope and sequence depending largely upon his individual needs, interests, and abilities. For a large per cent of school youth who are not being too well served now, general education should continue through the tenth grade, and in some cases on into the eleventh grade. Some youth, on the other hand, who are well adjusted and know what they want of school, should be permitted to start specialization earlier. In this matter, more attention should be given to individual differences, and school guidance should play a dominant role in bringing planned services to bear upon pupils, teachers, and the curriculum.

Second, most schools do not provide the necessary kind of learning experiences needed for youth to bridge the gaps between the sixth and the seventh grades, or between the eighth and the ninth grades. As a result, statistics show, at least in my state, that in these grades occur the greatest number of drop-outs. It is not uncommon to find a class pupil reading on a fifth- or sixth-grade level sitting beside another pupil reading on the eleventh- or twelfth-grade level, while the same amount and quality of work are expected of both. The same situation exists in other areas of the fundamental skills. It is, therefore, important to reorganize the seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade programs to take care of the great differences in ability, achievement, and adjustment.

Third, in the areas of citizenship training, schools will, I believe, move into broader core courses which originate not from subject matter but from basic citizenship objectives. This core course will usually replace the social studies and English because they are required by all students. It calls for a longer period of the daily schedules, usually a double-hour or half-day period; thus, allowing teachers more time for guidance and students an opportunity for citizenship practices. Many areas of adjustment education will be included, and the demands for new courses eliminated.

Fourth, schools can improve their curriculum by introducing the use of desirable units of adjustment education into the specialized courses; thus, enriching the lives of the students.

Fifth, club and activity programs, too often lacking in actual value and meaning, need to be well planned, and grow out of the interests of the students.

Sixth, schools must be responsible for developing a greater concern for more intelligent and effective use of our natural resources. It is well known that our people have wasted and squandered our resources in a shameful manner; as a result, we are now being faced with serious problems because of this lack of foresight.

Seventh, greater attention must be given to the matter of guidance, an item in the school program about which much has been said, but in which too little has been done.

Eighth, schools must give more attention to school-work experience programs.

It has not been my intention to exhaust the areas of the school program which will be affected as schools seek to attain the goals of adjustment education. Today the field of curriculum development is wide open. Leadership is where it can be found, and results are measured by the results in local schools. By continual experimentation, the fine secondary schools in America can be made better.

HOW CAN COMMON LEARNINGS, CORE CURRICULUM, AND IMPROVED SUBJECT OFFERINGS BE USED IN LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION?

DONALD H. MCINTOSH

THE CHALLENGE of Life Adjustment Education, that we "better equip all American youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society as homemakers, workers, and citizens" places upon the secondary schools the burden of organizing its program in such a way that every graduate shall have had the opportunity of experiencing those activities which are considered fundamental to the development of a satisfactory life in a democracy.

Previous to World War I, it was rather generally accepted that the elementary-school program could be relied upon to satisfy this need. Experience in the thirties, and since, has rather conclusively demonstrated that the elementary-school period does not provide the desired minimum of necessary general training. We are now confronted with the task of carrying forward through the secondary years, both the

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fundamentals of general learnings as well as learnings believed to be a necessary part of the experience of all citizens in a democracy. The introduction of a "core curriculum," which attempts to provide those experiences needed by all, and seeks to organize these experiences in such a way as to promote systematized and related learnings experiences, has been advanced as the answer.

The term "core" as used here is not the same as that in which certain subject matter courses were organized together and commonly studied by all students, but rather it is that part of the curriculum which has for its major purpose the developing of attitudes and competencies necessary to meet the needs of life in a democratic society.

Life Adjustment Education is concerned with the personal problems of each child, as well as with those problems which are common to all youth in the growing-up stage. In this core it is possible for the teacher to discover these problems of social and personal development, discuss them and start the pupils on the road to a solution. Through this common approach, the pupils discover that many of the things which worried them, and which they thought were a sign of "queerness" on their part, were only a phase of growing up.

As the pupils learn to identify these problems they are encouraged to learn and put into practice the techniques of problem-solving in their attack on the problem at hand.

Jumping to conclusions, illogical reasoning, emotional appeals, and other approaches of a like nature are ruled out, and they come to learn that such have no place in the development of a well adjusted life.

We know that the holding power of the secondary school is not what it should be. Numerous studies of the drop-outs have shown a rather consistent pattern of reasons. Lack of interest in the program of studies offered is a reason given quite consistently by a large percentage of drop outs.

If our educational program is to give these desired educational experiences to "all American youth," then we must find a way to hold them. The traditionally organized and taught subject-centered curriculum has proven itself as not the answer. Some phase or form of the core organization does seem to be the move in the right direction.

It offers an excellent opportunity for group and individual guidance, since it makes it possible for the teacher to become better acquainted with the pupil, his ambitions, his abilities, his fears and his limitations. This knowledge of the pupil as an individual on the part of the teacher is fundamental in a Life Adjustment program. The individual, and the experiences he needs in developing into a person who can live a successful life in the home, as worker on the job, and as citizen in the community is the heart and soul of this program.

The only way we can hope to do this is by discovering all we can about the pupil, by seeking the reasons as to why he reacts as he does to certain situations, discovering his talents and abilities, allowing

him to discuss his interests, ambitions, and dreams. The "core" offers a wonderful opportunity for such contacts.

I am concerned, however, that we do not allow ourselves to become so concerned with the mechanics of organization that we forget the educational challenge offered by a program of Life Adjustment. This can happen if we become sold on the idea that only through the core or common learnings curriculum, organized and conducted in such a way, can we find the answer to our problem. Over and over again we have been told that Life Adjustment Education is not a new educational strait jacket, to be wrapped around the educational program of a community and thus bring it into line.

It is my opinion that the last three words of the topic are far and above the most important part of the question. "Improved subject offerings" are vital. As mentioned above, the "drop-outs" have condemned the schools because of the material offered and the manner of its presentation as uninteresting. If we are to solve the problem of the drop-out, then we must give serious consideration to those factors of school life which led him to become a "drop-out."

We can not hope to reach a 100 per cent solution of this problem, but a great step forward will be achieved only when all the members of the staff of the school accept the philosophy of Life Adjustment and make it a part of the everyday approach to their classes. This point of view must be accepted by all or the program is doomed to failure regardless of how you reorganize, regroup, and rename.

We have on our staffs many who are excellent teachers in their subject fields. Their whole background of training and experience has centered around "how to present subject matter as such." Even the more recent graduates of most of our teacher training institutions are following this same pattern. This past year (1951), at the summer session of one of our large universities, out of a class of some forty odd graduate students only three had heard of Life Adjustment Education.

To clear this hurdle calls for some long-range thinking and planning on the part of the administrator. The older (in point of service) teachers must be assured that there is still a place for them and that they can make a vital contribution to the program. Subject matter can still be taught, but with a new direction, a new emphasis, and perhaps with new materials more nearly geared to the interest of the classes. One school in our area is reorganizing its English courses around the problems of "Home and Family Living." There will be practice in all the mechanics of communication as before, but always directed to definite problems applicable to the life of the boys and girls concerned.

The new additions to the faculty, like the old-timers, will have to be oriented into the program. This can be done through summer workshops, pre-school institutes, and regular faculty meetings throughout the year. Our school has made use of all three, but has had the greatest success through regular faculty meetings. A joint committee

of the faculty and administration plan the program in the spring. The entire faculty participates by submitting problem areas in which they feel the need for assistance, and the committee organizes and sets up the program on the basis of these suggestions.

If any success is to be achieved through regularly scheduled faculty meetings, then time must be given the staff when all can be together and when they are not already tired with a day's work. We operate on a "minimum day's" schedule and close school at 12:30. The entire faculty meet for a luncheon at 1:00 P.M., and then from 1:45 to 4 o'clock, participate in the general meeting.

Experts in the fields under discussion are called in as speakers and consultants, and where necessary the cost of these services have been met from the district funds. From this program has developed a fine staff morale; an acceptance of a point of view that this challenge "to better equip all the boys and girls of the school" is not for just those who handle a core program, but for all the staff; that the only justification for their subject and themselves is the manner in which they contribute to that end.

HOW CAN COMMON LEARNINGS, CORE CURRICULUM, AND IMPROVED SUBJECT OFFERINGS BE USED IN LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION?

RAYMOND G. WILSON

IT NEVER has been the nature of the school to keep pace with social change. Institutional inertia, societal conservatism, and a general timidity on the part of school people all contribute to cultural lag. In an era of momentous change, the problem becomes acute in that the gap is increased and the program of the school becomes highly artificial. In order to narrow this gap and more adequately serve the changing social order, the school is constantly under the compulsion of re-examining its objectives and procedures so as to preserve that which is basically sound and of developing appropriate practices for meeting its present challenge.

A major problem confronting educators in secondary schools today is that of re-working the programs of these institutions so as to make them truly functional in the lives of the student population. Our American culture is dynamic and the present age is characterized particularly by stress and change. The increasing complexity of the world about us makes the educational practices of an earlier era relatively ineffective under present day conditions.

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It is to this task that both the Life Adjustment Education movement and the current experimentation with common learnings core programs have been dedicated. While the approach of the two has been different, each has been concerned primarily with trying to make the schools more genuinely functional.

During the present century, we have gained much greater insight into what it is we must do. This insight has been the joint contribution of many frontier thinkers and of practical school men working in the field. Their thinking has been buttressed strongly by newer knowledge in such fields as psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, and political science. The case for thorough-going curriculum change and for making life in the school a genuinely affirmative experience seems to have been well made.

The proposed character of this change postulates the need, it seems to many of us, for a planned curriculum which will more adequately provide for the common needs of students, while, at the same time, their specialized interests are not neglected. At Murphy High School, we have attempted to do this with a curriculum pattern that has three bands of time and by means of whatever improvements we could effect in the usual subject matter offerings.

The Murphy program has been so designed as to provide for a large block of time to be devoted to general education, another amount to the pursuit of special interests, and a third to special work in skills and techniques. Activities in the common learnings band of time are problem-centered and the problems with which it deals are real. These problems are selected from "the unresolved problems variously associated with each of the essential social processes and the common real life problems of the pupil population."¹ The problems encompass the "common learnings" which we believe to be part and parcel of the necessary equipment of individuals if they are to become truly mature persons.

By working together with real problems that are the common concern of all, the students not only become intelligent about them but develop social competence and sensitivity to social change; acquire the common attitudes which are necessary to living together in a democracy; and grow in the habits and techniques of discussion necessary for effective status in a functioning democratic social order.

In this planned curriculum, the traditional subject fields are not discarded but serve as a valuable adjunct in enabling the student to satisfy his own personal needs and interests. The effort of the school is directed, however, toward vitalizing these subject areas and it is particularly in this effort that Life Adjustment Education can contribute so much.

¹Harold C. Hand, "The Case for the Planned Curriculum," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 33: 193-200, p. 198.

This last statement, it seems to me, furnishes us the best lead as to how the things which have been learned in the Life Adjustment Education movement can be associated with the common learnings program most profitably. Dan Hull has pointed out that Life Adjustment Education involves organizing and reorganizing schools better to achieve useful living purposes.² In the Life Adjustment movement, many approaches have been tried and improvement has been effected in traditional programs as well as in newer procedures. The position we take at Murphy is that the goals charted for Life Adjustment Education can more readily be achieved if the curriculum pattern in itself does not vitiate such attempts by the very artificiality of its design.

It must be recognized, of course, that things like the common learnings program and Life Adjustment Education are not just matters of neat blueprints on some drawing board. They are things that strike at deep-seated prejudices and practices which have the strong allegiance of many people. The successful promotion of programs of this kind requires the actual reconstruction of personalities on the part of the people who are involved in the changes. Unless teachers can achieve this reconstruction of personality and genuinely accept the points of view involved, these programs are doomed to failure. It is a matter that requires time and the most intelligent handling that administration and staff can bring to it. Where this can be done with success, there seems every reason to believe that the programs can achieve much together in making our schools genuinely educational institutions.

²J. Dan Hull, in *Education for Life Adjustment*, (Harl R. Douglass, Editor) p. 9.

SPANISH LESSONS ON RECORDS

The RCA Victor New World Spanish record series now is available on 45 R.P.M. vinyl plastic records, in addition to the 78 R.P.M. version on ten-inch records. Authors of the series are Henry Grattan Doyle, Professor of Romance Languages and Dean of Columbian College, The George Washington University and Francisco Aguilera, Assistant Director, Hispanic Foundation, The Library of Congress. Recordings were made by native speakers, and two men and one woman are heard, to assure variety and to demonstrate conversational use of the Spanish language. Initial lessons are recorded at slow pace, and without staccato effects, to enable beginners to get started on vocabulary, enunciation, and intonation with facility. Later records are spoken at normal speed.

An accompanying textbook contains all directions and interpretations—recorded matter being devoted entirely to Spanish. There is an introduction devoted to Spanish grammar, then a discussion of Spanish verbs. The first two lessons in the book deal with the matter of Spanish pronunciation. Tests of lessons three to forty, as recorded on the records, also are printed in the book. The record sets are available from RCA Victor dealers.

Group XIX (Monday)—TOPIC: What Should the Secondary-School Principals' Associations Do to Promote Life Adjustment Education?

SUBTOPIC: What Basic Policies are Essential in a State-Wide Life Adjustment Education Program?

CHAIRMAN: *C. W. Sanford*, Director, Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, and Associate Dean, College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

CONSULTANT: *Galen Jones*, Director, Instruction, Organization and Services Branch, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

RECORDER: *Francis W. Brown*, Superintendent, Ottawa Hills Schools, Toledo, Ohio

WHAT BASIC POLICIES ARE ESSENTIAL IN A STATE-WIDE LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM?

GLENN F. VARNER

IN DISCUSSING state-wide life adjustment programs, I am going to use a loose definition of life adjustment programs. I am going to include under such programs any secondary-school improvement program which follows, in general, the "Guiding Principles of Life Adjustment Education." As a matter of fact, the use of new terms such as "life adjustment education" might prove to be a handicap to an improvement program because people are easily frightened by new terms used in education. In making this statement, I am not belittling the life adjustment movement—rather, I would like to use this opportunity to point out the many valuable contributions which this movement has made in analyzing the problems of secondary education and suggesting means of improvement. Any improvement program will gain by a close study of the development of the principles and the recommendations of the life adjustment movement.

PRINCIPLES OF LEADERSHIP

The first basic problem which must be faced in the development of a state-wide secondary-school improvement program is the matter of locating leadership. Some group of individuals must start the program. The leadership in originating an improvement program might come from the state department, the state university, the state secondary-school principals' association, the school administrators' association, or

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even from some other educational organization. The four organizations which I specifically mentioned are generally in the best position to originate a state improvement program since they have prestige in educational circles. Which of these organizations will be the one to originate a state-wide improvement program will depend to a large degree upon local conditions and the personnel in the group. In general, I believe that the group most likely to originate a state-wide improvement program will be the state principals' association.

One of the basic principles which should be followed in the organization of the curriculum improvement program is that the program should be a co-operative program of all the important educational groups within the state.

The second basic principle is that the improvement program must have financial support. The program will function best if there is sufficient financing so that a full-time executive secretary can be employed and money is available for numerous publications of pamphlets, bulletins, and guides. However, most state-wide organizations will find it necessary to start in a modest manner and develop a program which will eventually win this financial support.

A third basic principle to be followed in the development of a state-wide curriculum improvement program is that the program must be a grassroots affair. All persons in the community who are going to participate in the improvement program should be in on the planning and development of the basic studies which will be the background of the improvement program. This means that the local principal or superintendent must spend some time in working with members of the staff so that they become enthusiastic about the inauguration of the improvement program. Any attempt to force a program upon the local staff by outside agencies or by the local administrators is quite apt to prove to be unsuccessful.

FUNCTIONS

One of the first functions of the organization will be to develop an overall philosophy and to help the schools in the state become aware of the problems which exist. This will need to be done thru workshops, conferences, and bulletins.

The second service to be offered by this group will be that of providing printed guides for the study of specific problems which are apt to need improvement in the local schools. The third service which will naturally develop as the program progresses is that of providing consultant service. Consultants can be enlisted from the staffs of the universities, colleges, state department, and public schools. The consultant service may consist of (1) a review of the studies made by the local schools with recommendations to the schools concerning the use of the findings as starting points for improvements; (2) consultants to visit the schools initiating studies, working with the faculties, and

outlining procedures; and, (3) consultants who may visit the schools after studies have been made and outline procedures to be used in bringing about improvements indicated by the studies. Eventually, the central organization will want to provide conferences and workshops for people who are participating or who are planning to participate in the improvement program.

It seems to me that the best method to use in launching an improvement program in a local school is to select one or more areas where it appears improvement is desirable. Then by having a co-operative study made by members of the staff concerning the different phases of this problem, the need or the lack of need for improvement will become apparent. Using the study as a basis, committees can be appointed to study the findings and to recommend and bring about improvements.

The function of a state-wide organization in such a plan will be the providing of manuals for such studies, and the providing of consultant service during the process of making the studies, and to help analyze the results of the study. Some schools might wish to make a general over-all study which will involve many areas. This more ambitious program is an excellent way to bring about improvement in the local school if there is sufficient enthusiasm and personnel to carry out this type of a major project. However, it is better to begin with a modest program which can be carried out rather than with an ambitious program which may bog down.

Some suggested areas which might well serve as starting points for an improvement program and for which the state-wide organization may wish to prepare guides are:

1. The ability of the school to retain its pupils
2. Pupil participation in extracurricular activities
3. The costs of secondary education
4. The treatment of individual differences of pupils
5. The extent to which the school recognizes individual worth and personality
6. Development of a curriculum based upon direct experience and problems of living
7. The constructive use of records and data
8. Methods of evaluation
9. The effectiveness of the guidance program.

In Minnesota, the Secondary-School Principal's Association is organizing a state-wide improvement program. This program came as a result of discussions held at a series of spring workshops of the Association. The progress made so far has been to gain the co-operation of the State Department of Education; the College of Education, University of Minnesota; the State School Administrators' Association; and other educational groups.

We are at the present time in the process of preparing several manuals which can be used by the local communities in studying prob-

lems. The biggest problem which confronts the organization today is that of financing. Several means are being explored with the objective of obtaining sufficient funds so that we may have a full-time executive secretary and money to defray the expense of publications.

We plan to have several manuals prepared during the course of the year and also expect to have a consultant service established by the time our first manuals are ready for distribution.

WHAT BASIC POLICIES ARE ESSENTIAL IN A STATE-WIDE LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM?

F. M. PETERSON

THE Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program (ISSCP) was launched on September 1, 1947. Subsequently, the ISSCP affiliated with the national Life Adjustment Education Program (LAEP), and the Steering Committee of the ISSCP became the Steering Committee for the Illinois Life Adjustment Education Program (ILAEP). The ISSCP is sponsored in Illinois by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Mr. Vernon L. Nickell. At every step, this sponsorship of ISSCP-ILAEP is in co-operation with colleges and universities, the Illinois Secondary-School Principal's Association, and some thirty-two other professional and lay organizations.

The stated purpose of the ISSCP-ILAEP on the state-wide level is to co-ordinate all of the persons and groups who are, or who should be interested in the high-school curriculum. The ISSCP has carefully defined the principles necessary to the successful functioning of its state-wide program. These principles are stated in a volume soon to be published by the McGraw Hill Book Company. I propose to discuss the first three of the ten principles as set forth in this forthcoming publication. What I have to say from this point on will be quoted, in part from Chapter III.

"Principle 1. The program should be under the auspices of the agency most inclusively related to all the schools of the state; namely, the office of the superintendent of public instruction (or by whatever title the state department of education may be known). The case for this principle is quite simple. It is that there is no other agency under which a state-wide curriculum program is likely to enlist all of the necessary co-operation or to endure beyond the first flush of enthusiasm. There are but two or three other agencies likely to undertake

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such an enterprise, and it requires only a brief analysis of each to demonstrate its inability to fill the bill. One such agency is the state university.

"In Illinois, and probably in all other states as well, this would be completely fatal to the program. Even with every major university and college in Illinois freely and generously supplying consultants to the secondary schools through ISSCP, the shortage of consultants in reference to need constitutes its present as well as its most probable future problem.

"Another agency which might conceivably attempt to sponsor a state-wide curriculum development program is the state high-school principals' association. Indeed, this very thing was attempted in Illinois prior to 1947 with results... which were far from satisfactory. Although such an organization might enlist the co-operation of the universities and colleges in freeing the time of staff members to serve as consultants in the schools, it could scarcely raise the amount of money required each year to pay the necessary travel expense of these consultants. Only an agency with the continuing possibility of securing tax funds can do what needs to be done by way of financing the things for which funds must be had if a really vigorous program is to result in which all schools, regardless of financial condition, can participate if they wish.

"A third type of auspices under which a state-wide curriculum development program might be attempted is that represented by the types of organization which result when interested schools in a commonwealth band themselves together and levy membership fees upon themselves. Although much good work can and has been done by such organizations, they are open to certain serious criticisms. In the first place, the more poverty-stricken school districts too frequently find it either too difficult or impossible to belong. Secondly, only the private colleges and universities can, with conscience, be thus selective in making consultancy services available.

"The only organization in Illinois, and quite probably in all other states as well, which possess the potentialities requisite for the sponsoring of even a reasonably adequate state-wide program of curriculum development is the state department of education. It has continuing relationships with every institutionalized educational agency, vocational as well as general, private as well as public, in the commonwealth. Furthermore, this relationship is legal in character in virtually all instances. It has a power status with the legislature and other groups. Moreover, it is the agency through which the U. S. Office of Education and the great foundations generally make their services available. It, and it alone, is uniquely charged with oversight over the public schools; the facilitating of local curriculum is thus its proper business. It, and it alone, has continuing access to tax funds to be expended for purposes necessary to the resolving of

most problems of curriculum development at the local level. It is the one agency in the commonwealth most likely to be able to secure and retain the necessary co-operation of all institutions of higher learning. Finally, it is also the one agency most likely to be successful in securing the continuing state-wide lay assistance in educational policy making, without which no state-wide program of curriculum development is likely to possess enduring vitality.

"Principle 2. The policies governing the program should derive from a continuing advisory body made up of representatives of all state-wide organizations, both lay and professional, whose interests are touched by the program. Even though they may not represent any such organization, key individuals in a position to contribute very significantly to the development of the program should also be included in this advisory body.

"This principle is securely grounded in the fact that the public schools belong to and should serve the people of the supporting state. It is also grounded in the further fact that professional advice is useful to laymen as they consider matters of educational policy. All major policies governing the purposes, the structure, and the functioning of ISSCP have from its inception derived from a body constituted in accordance with this principle. It is almost impossible to over-emphasize the importance of this advisory body to the continuing vitality of the state-wide curriculum program in Illinois. It provides an essential undergirding of lay and professional authority which as assuredly as can be done insures the validity of the enterprises undertaken by the ISSCP. It builds and maintains both lay and professional confidence in what is done and thus facilitates the participation of an ever increasing number of local schools. It makes it more easy for the superintendent of public instruction to secure the relative modest legislative grants without which the work of the ISSCP would be seriously, quite likely catastrophically, circumscribed. Of the ten principles which govern ISSCP, none is more essential than that its policies derive from the type of continuing advisory body here briefly described.

"Principle 3. The program should be permissive in character in that any local school may 'come in' or 'stay out' in whatever respects and to whatever extent it may see fit; it should be easily possible for schools that at first decided to 'stay out' to 'come in' later should they so desire. The utilization of this principle helps assure that the various kinds of assistance afforded by the state-wide program will be had by all who desire them, and almost completely guarantees that the aids thus given will be put to work in the resolving of felt local problems. The employment of this way of operating also yields another very real benefit. It completely assures that there be no schools which feel 'left out of things' with resultant feelings of injustice and bitterness. To proceed on any basis other than permissiveness would, of course, be to do serious violence to the principle of local autonomy in educational matters.

"The principle here enunciated is also necessary if proper account is to be taken of the fact of individual differences among school faculties, school boards, and school and community needs and readiness. What may not be recognized as a need today may be strongly felt as such six months or a year later. Permissiveness, then, there must be if the striking that is done is to be done while the iron is hot.

"For these and kindred valid reasons the work of the ISSCP is, on the wise advice of its lay and professional advisory body, completely permissive in character. Their repeated firsthand observations of the fruits yielded by the operation of this principle in Illinois lead the authors to urge its adoption and faithful observance in state-wide curriculum development programs everywhere."

I leave the discussion of the six remaining basic principles for a state-wide curriculum program to my colleagues from Illinois.

WHAT BASIC POLICIES ARE ESSENTIAL IN A STATE-WIDE LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM?

SPENCER W. MYERS

IT WOULD seem to me that the most important essential in a program of life adjustment education or other type of educational change is the necessity for having the essential, continuing educational agency responsible for the program in the state, conscious of the need. In this case it is the state department of education. It is an extremely fine thing that the state university, the secondary-principals association, teachers associations, and other agencies are interested, but most states report that the leadership of the state department is crucial in such a development. It is crucial for three reasons:

1. The state alone is in a position to make possible the kind and amount of educational experimentation that is essential to the development of such a program.
2. The State Department is in a position to spearhead the solution of the financial problem. Even if the state does not finance the program, it can lead in the acquisition of foundation funds or other monies and in the stimulation of expenditure of local funds.
3. It can, by its very approval and support of the program, give it status in the state which could not be acquired in any other way.

Essentially, life adjustment education can only come about in the way in which any other educational change comes about. There must be a recognition of the need for educational change and there must be

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consciousness that the program as now developed and envisioned in many states does not serve the needs of many of the state's children. Two essential points of view are essential here:

1. The educational program in any state should be designed for all of the children of all of the people, not just part of them.
2. American society, as we hope to maintain it, cannot maintain itself with a minority of educated citizens. We are very close to the minority base as of today.

In order to bring recognition for the need for educational improvement, there is need for a program of research which indicates the relative effectiveness of the present educational program. The most crucial aspect of this research might center around the question, "Why do children stay in high school?" We have done hundreds of drop-out studies without any appreciable effect upon the education program. We should do as many holding-power studies. There is beginning evidence to prove that most high-school students do not stay in high school because of the educational program but because of the extracurricular and non-curricular activities which surround the academic experience. Such studies would force a recognition of the need for additional program development.

Thus, the most crucial program which a state can sponsor is a continuous program of in-service education sponsored at the state level but supported and operated at the local level, in terms of local problems. In order to carry on such a program effectively, most educators need to learn a great deal more than they know now about the techniques of effective group operation. There are many types of groups. They have different purposes. The purpose can only be served by the use of discussion techniques and other techniques designed to the specific purposes of the group. There are many techniques which can be learned that most school people do not know.

The use of the camp workshop in in-service education requires the knowledge of a considerable number of techniques. The use of discussion groups with staff, parents, and community members in solving the problems of school administration involves many techniques which are known and can be used. The effective use of group members in instruction have already been proved in terms of specific methods. Most of us do not know them or do not use them.

There is no way in which it is possible to establish an effective state-wide life adjustment education program, geared to the needs of the local community, and to operate in a way that will insure acceptance without greater knowledge of these methods and techniques. They are the essential vehicles which must be used in any such program.

A life adjustment program which does not envision the effective use of such methods for a program cannot succeed because the very concept of life adjustment education assumes capitalizing upon the

skills of all of our citizens to maintain our way of life. "Tyranny over the mind of man" comes as much from within as from without. We are the only group that can make men really free.

WHAT BASIC POLICIES ARE ESSENTIAL IN A STATE-WIDE LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM?

LEON S. WASKIN

AS I HAVE reviewed the experience with life adjustment education in my own state and as I have observed some of the experiences in other states, the following policies have appeared to me to be essential if the program is to achieve its major goals.

First and foremost it should be recognized that the basic purpose of the life adjustment education program is to try to meet the needs of all youth. Earlier statements about the adequacy of our educational programs for selected portions of our secondary-school population have, in my mind, served but to relieve us of the responsibility of looking critically at all aspects of the curriculum. As schools attempt more and more seriously truly to deal with the needs of the individual student, it becomes apparent that smugness about any part of our curriculum cannot be justified.

A second and related policy is that the life adjustment education program is closely related to the community school program. If the similarities in purpose between these two movements are recognized, then it is clear that life adjustment education cannot be confined to the secondary-school youth or, for that matter, to the needs of students in our elementary schools, but rather to the educational needs of all citizens in the community, both young and old. A true community school will attempt to examine all these needs and to set up appropriate educational activities.

A third policy, and, from the point of view of state operation, probably the most significant one, is acceptance of the concept by both the state educational authority and local schools that curriculum development is primarily the responsibility of the local school. The necessity for this policy seems so obvious that the point hardly needs to be labored. Nevertheless, in all too many states we still have substantial portions of time and effort of educators devoted to the development of state courses of study. Our practices indicate that we are still far from accepting the position that the people in daily contact with the student over a prolonged period of time are in a far better

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position to determine with the student the nature of the educational program that will best meet that student's needs than anyone in the state capitol or the state university.

A fourth policy is that a program will move forward most rapidly when co-operation is recognized as the keystone of all state planning. Co-operation is equally important at both the state and local levels. At the local level it would at least imply the involvement of all teachers, general and vocational, and of students. Involvement of parents and other adult citizens will be commented upon in the next policy. At the state level, co-operation would certainly imply involvement of representatives of teachers and administrators, the public, and the various agencies and institutions having a stake in education or providing resources that could be utilized by the schools. It might be worth repeating that the main objective of co-operation at the state level ought not be the development of a state course of study or a detailed curriculum guide that would prescribe or "suggest" what should be done at different grade levels or in different grades. Major effort should be devoted to the stimulation at the local level of the study, planning, and evaluation of curricular experiences and procedures that would be based upon current research about the laws of learning and the real needs of the people of the community.

A fifth fundamental policy is that co-operative planning for life adjustment education should involve the public. This is an aspect of the previous policy but I would justify listing it separately to emphasize the point that adult citizens must be involved directly in the planning of programs and not be regarded simply as the targets of a so-called public relations or selling program. Generally speaking, participation in planning and identification with the process results in a greater willingness to accept change. Frequently, also, lay participation serves to urge school people to move more rapidly than at times they appear to be willing to do.

A sixth important policy is the need for recognition by both the institutions of higher education and the public at large of the dual responsibility of our colleges to the improvement of community education or life adjustment education programs. In general, colleges and the public recognize that our institutions of higher education are the principal source of pre-service training of prospective teachers. There is a growing recognition on the part of the colleges and, in my opinion, to a lesser extent on the part of the public, of the responsibility of the college to provide consultant resources and other types of assistance to local schools seriously engaged in the study of the program of the local school. A major block to more rapid expansion of services of this kind has been our inability as yet to find a generally satisfactory method of financing such services.

Another difficulty has been the reluctance on the part of some college consultants, or consultants from state departments of educa-

tion for that matter, to recognize that they are not omniscient; that they do not have all the answers. I am convinced that progress will be greatly facilitated when such consultants recognize that they can make their best contribution when they operate on a peer basis and when they are willing to listen as well as to talk.

Policies should also be developed in each state for the development of a structure or method for rapid dissemination of information concerning promising practices in community schools. Some of the techniques for achieving this sharing of information have already been identified and are in use. Perhaps the most common one is use of publications of one sort or another. While such publications are undoubtedly of value, they are subject to a number of limitations. Frequently they are not read. Sometimes when they are read they still fail to provide the necessary impact to bring about change in practice. Other supplementary means are therefore necessary. Among these the most promising technique seems to be the workshop-type conference, preferably in a camp setting where teachers and administrators, and even representatives of the public can think, work, and live together for at least a two-day period. Camp sites are especially advantageous for this purpose because they are free of the distractions of other activities usually found on the campus or in the city. Encouragement of school visits is another promising technique. Also, competent consultants who work with a number of different schools can make a significant contribution to the dissemination of information about desirable practices.

A policy that is often overlooked when we discuss programs of this kind is one of recognition by the various status authorities and agencies in the state and nation of schools that are sincerely trying to meet the educational needs of their community. The cynical attitude that the only good administrator is one who plays it safe is all too prevalent. If the state education authority, the colleges and universities, lay groups of various kinds, and so on, can make it evident that they set store by schools that are not afraid to change if the change will result in a better program, a significant contribution will be made to the eradication of the cynicism and fears of honest school administrators and teachers. Such recognition cannot be offered only as an accolade to those schools that have already made changes that are apparently successful. Rather, all schools ought to be encouraged from the very beginning to take steps that may lead to an improved instructional program no matter how feeble some of those steps may appear to be to the sophisticated curriculum expert.

As a final policy I should probably include the willingness on the part of the state education authority and accreditation agencies to waive various restrictive requirements that tend to discourage or to block local change. Many of these restrictions have been introduced with the best of motives. Too often, however, they seem to lead in the same direction as that famous road paved with good intentions. For

example, some states have recognized the virtues of a longer block of time for the various educational activities in the school. Recognition of the advantages of the longer period is one thing. Imposing legislative or administrative requirements that all schools must have, let us say, fifty-five minute periods is another matter. Legislative action or administrative ruling at the state level is a highly treacherous method for handling problems of local school administration. Similar hazards exist in some of the requirements of our accrediting agencies. Fortunately, in my opinion, this trend is on the decrease.

WHAT BASIC POLICIES ARE ESSENTIAL IN A STATE-WIDE LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM?

JAMES E. SPITZNAS

C LUES to answers to this question and to the validation of state educational policies may, in Maryland, be found in the equalization principle. This principle derives from the major premise that popular education is the necessary handmaiden of democratic government, an instrument essential to the preservation and improvement of democratic society. The equalization principle applies this premise by assuring that no child, by virtue of the accident of birthplace, shall be denied his heritage of educational opportunity and that the state as an organic whole shall not weaken itself by denying to any of its parts the tools requisite to effective citizenship. Of course, to support this principle, the necessary finance structure must first be built sufficiently adaptable to respond easily to changing need. In 1923, one year after the equalization system was instituted in Maryland, twenty-five per cent of the financial support of county schools came from the state. This year the percentage approaches fifty. All states provide aid in some form to local systems. Over the years they have been assuming an ever larger part of total costs.

The equalization financially of essential educational opportunities connotes a broader principle which presents two slightly differing aspects: (1) The state has the obligation to mobilize all types of special educational resources which are not localized by community, county or section and to bring these to bear equitably upon the total educational need; and (2) The state as an organic whole can perform certain essential educational functions for the local units which they can not perform as economically or as well for themselves. In conformity with these theses, the states have long been establishing

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minimal qualifications for teachers, exercising the supervisory function, fixing compulsory school attendance ages, and requiring for all boys and girls a program of education best designed to develop them into good American citizens, which, as of now, means citizens in this world of the second half of the twentieth century.

MOBILIZING RESOURCES EQUITABLY

In this current world and in the world of the foreseeable future with all their political and economic complexities, how can the state as an organic whole mobilize its scattered resources and bring them to bear equitably upon the total need? In the first place, the state through its central educational agency is most strategically placed to draw out from the whole state as a large reservoir of knowledge and judgment and unique experiences valid agreements as to what should constitute life adjustment education in the world of today. The central agency can do this co-operatively and democratically and, when such agreements have been formulated, they may serve as the framework within which each unit will develop its own program and advance in conformity with its own necessities. Maryland is doing this through the mechanisms of over-all representative advisory committees and occasional state workshops. From such meetings of minds has grown the convictions that the program we seek to develop should be (1) related to matters of obvious importance in the life of the individual and in the programs of the community; (2) diagnostic, that is, based upon knowledge of the individual and of the community as precisely determined as possible; (3) shared in the sense that every individual in the class should have an equitable and appropriate part in purposing, planning, executing and evaluating the enterprise; (4) scientific in that the method and spirit of science should be used in isolating and resolving problems; (5) catholic and eclectic in that all the arts of communication and expression are available for bringing all individuals into organic relationship to the group; (6) resourceful in that the wider community should be used as a laboratory.

The state through its central educational agency is strategically placed to perform the mobilization function in many other ways: (1) co-ordinate the services of vocational and general education divisions in state departments of education, teacher education institutions, institutions specializing in the arts, individuals from within and without the state who have had unique experiences and who have unique bodies of lore to contribute, parents, teachers, supervisors and principals. Teacher colleges, if located strategically by sections, may be used as curriculum centers, not primarily materials depositories, for effecting such co-ordination. Here special personnel and material resources may be used for stepping up competences in all the arts which are the practical means of achieving worthy educational ends. Competent teachers with writing skill may work with specialists from the Natural

Resources Board, University Extension, and the Health Department to assure that bulletins and reports on technical subjects will be so prepared that they will have maximum use as instructional materials in elementary and secondary classrooms. (2) Identify best practices throughout the state and publicize them. This may be termed the dissemination function carried on in discharge of the obligation to make known everywhere the best anywhere. (3) Gather data on pupil abilities and pupil achievement and use these to further the agreed-upon educational strategy and the most effective classroom tactics. (4) Establish and promote clinical services at appropriate locations where professional specialists may diagnose and prescribe, the resulting data, when impersonalized, being used as instructional material. (5) Through co-operative endeavors, set standards far above the minimum, clear the way for progress by the local units, and encourage and support them in their advances. In Maryland, state personnel are available for use in planning and staffing local curriculum workshops and for obtaining consultants from many sources. Standards bulletins are prepared co-operatively. They set forth the agreed-upon theory of the curriculum and illustrative patterns of curriculum organization which will support any local unit in its advance beyond conventional practices.

In what J. A. Froude calls "the most daring feat in the military annals of mankind," Julius Caesar with fifty thousand men defeated combined armies numbering about three hundred thousand. In this campaign against Vercingetorix, he held several legions in reserve. Stationed at vantage points overlooking the field of battle, they could go expeditiously to whatever units were hard pressed and, when the crisis had passed, return to their vantage points. They were an organic part of the army and a common resource." In somewhat the same way, the State Department of Education of Maryland is a common resource for all the educational programs in the state.

WHAT OF CONTESTS?

Contests—they're losing favor among school faculties because they arouse ersatz interest in activities in which there is no real interest. They take up time which could be better spent. The emphasis in contests is not upon learning but upon winning. Contests develop the "gimme" attitude of expecting a large reward for little labor. Contests stimulate only those who are already competent and superior. The average child knows he hasn't a chance to win so he doesn't try, says Dwight L. Arnold, Kent State U., Ohio. He further states that they are used when learning is boring, teaching is inadequate, and when someone outside the school wants to control learning. Like gasoline on a slow fire, contests create vast action. In other respects, too, contests are like gasoline on a slow fire.—The "Teacher's Letter" of the *Educator's Washington Dispatch*.

Group XIX (*Tuesday*)—TOPIC: What Should the State Secondary-School Principals' Associations do to Promote Life Adjustment Education?

SUBTOPIC: How Do You get a State-Wide Life Adjustment Education Program Under Way?

CHAIRMAN: *C. W. Sanford*, Director, Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program and Associate Dean, College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

CONSULTANT: *Galen Jones*, Director, Instruction, Organization, and Services Branch, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

RECORDER: *Francis W. Brown*, Superintendent, Ottawa Hills Schools, Toledo, Ohio

HOW DO YOU GET A STATE-WIDE LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM UNDER WAY?

STEPHEN ROMINE

THE QUESTION for discussion this afternoon has many answers. I shall report only what we have attempted to do in Colorado, prefacing my remarks by saying that we have not found all of the answers and that not all of the few which we have tried have proved successful. Quite likely we do not even have all of the questions.

Two conditions have affected our approach very much. In the first place, every person working on the movement has had a full-time job apart from his interest in Education for Life Adjustment. And, secondly, no funds have been available on the state level specifically earmarked to promote our efforts. Our approach, therefore, has concentrated on using existing agencies and persons for whatever help they could give. The result has been that progress depended largely upon the time which individuals could give to the movement apart from other duties (or in relation to them) and upon whatever financial support could be garnered from funds not established specifically for Education for Life Adjustment.

Eight types of activity have characterized the movement in Colorado as follows:

1. Under the leadership of the State Department of Education, a Colorado Commission on Education for Life Adjustment was set up to include wide representation from educational and lay groups. This commission served initially as a sounding board and as a means of interpreting the program and suggesting ideas for its implementation. It has

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- met very infrequently, and a smaller executive committee serves to determine working policy. This committee also meets infrequently.
2. A body of consultants was established with membership drawn from various colleges, universities, and public schools throughout the state. Lists of these persons were sent to Colorado schools with the suggestion that interested administrators contact consultants of their choice to work on their own specific school problems or projects. In view of financial limitations it was felt that by having consultants more readily available throughout the state more schools would find it easier to use them.
 3. To further encourage schools to consider forward-looking changes in their educational program the two accrediting agencies in Colorado voiced approval of Education for Life Adjustment. This was done through the University of Colorado which sponsors the state accreditation program and through the Colorado State Committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.
 4. A series of district conferences was held in the state to help interpret the movement, to stimulate interest in it, and to suggest possible approaches for individual teachers, departments, schools, and school systems. Teachers, administrators, consultants, board members, and laymen participated in these conferences. Out of these a number of projects were initiated and carried on subsequently by individual consultants or teams of consultants.
 5. Two brochures were published and distributed to the schools—one by the State Department of Education and one by the University of Colorado. The latter grew out of a research project in which 37 high schools participated, and a follow-up study is now in process involving all of the secondary schools of the state.
 6. Several collegiate institutions and public schools have held conferences and/or workshops on Education for Life Adjustment, and more undoubtedly will be held in the future. It is hoped that these institutions and schools increasingly will afford leadership in their respective areas of the state.
 7. Articles have been prepared for and have appeared in the official state journals of educators, boards of education, and the parent-teacher association.
 8. Just recently released is a series of platters for radio. These were prepared through the efforts of a committee headed by Dr. Ernest Hanson, Superintendent of Schools, Pueblo, Colorado and with the co-operation of the University of Denver.

These activities outline what has been done in Colorado. We have tried to use the resources at hand and to work as actively as the limitations of our situation would permit. We have not been too much concerned whether improvement came about under the banner of Education for Life Adjustment or whether it emerged simply as a natural step in the improvement of school services. Very little has been done to publicize schools which have carried on projects.

In a very real sense we do not have a highly co-ordinated state program. Our efforts have been decentralized, and many institutions

and individuals have had a hand in the movement. What small success we may have achieved is due in large measure to the willing co-operation of persons about the state to assume and carry out responsibilities associated with promoting Education for Life Adjustment.

HOW DO YOU GET A STATE-WIDE LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM UNDER WAY?

J. G. UMSTATTD

THIS paper was prepared two months in advance of the discussions we have just heard by Romine of Colorado and Custer of Kansas. The writer attempted to anticipate to a degree what they might say and to select a pattern of a somewhat different nature. The plan here described is the one used by the Texas Study of Secondary Education which in effect is a Commission on Life Adjustment Education under a different name. It is in its tenth year of operation and currently has a membership of 32 junior and 122 senior high schools. These 154 schools range in enrollments from about 50 pupils to more than 2,000 pupils, and they are located in all parts of the state. Consequently, the plan here described may be said to have set up the machinery for a state-wide Life Adjustment Education program. It may be considered a case study of the process of getting the program under way.

INITIAL LEADERSHIP

In this enterprise, as in any other, some person has to start the ball rolling. In getting a life adjustment education commission launched, the individual might be a superintendent of schools, a high-school principal, a member of a state department of education, or some person in a college. In the present case it happened to be a college teacher. All the leadership that was necessary was that of offering the suggestion to the state organization of secondary-school principals that a loosely knit organization be formulated for the continuous study of adjusting secondary education to the needs of the youth served. The idea was accepted by unanimous vote of the organization during its state meeting in 1940, and the president of the association together with the present speaker immediately began a series of long-distance telephone calls and letters to carry the idea forward.

It is doubtful that the idea would have been accepted so readily if a rather pressing problem had not been in the minds of the persons present at the meeting. In this instance the problem was that of the influence of college entrance requirements upon the secondary-school

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curriculum. When that problem was suggested as the first to be studied co-operatively, all the principals immediately agreed to participate by supplying information that might be requested by the person pursuing the problem. A year after this sponsorship had been guaranteed, the study had been completed as a doctoral dissertation, and in 1941 the findings were presented to the fall meeting of the Association.

EXPANDED SPONSORSHIP

The results of that first research under the sponsorship of the Texas Association of Secondary School Principals indicated that a broader sponsorship would be needed if changes were to be made in the high-school program. Consequently, it was decided to invite the Texas Association of Collegiate Registrars and the Association of Texas Colleges to join forces in the enterprise. By this time it was also agreed that a definite organization should be effected. Consequently in June, 1942, representatives of the three organizations and a representative from the state department of education, together with the speaker and the person who had conducted the first study, met to formulate an organization that would continually study problems of adjusting the secondary-school program to the real needs of pupils.

Since that time the sponsorship has increased further to include, in addition to the organizations mentioned, the Texas Association of School Administrators, the State Department of Health, the Southern Association Executive Committee for the state, the Hogg Foundation, and the Texas Junior College Association. Not all of these organizations or agencies have been particularly active in the enterprise but without exception they are always willing to co-operate whenever the need for their assistance arises. The Principals' Association has been the leading sponsor throughout the period.

PLAN OF ORGANIZATION

At the organization meeting in 1942 it was agreed that the name of the organization would be The Texas Study of Secondary Education and that its executive officer be called a co-ordinator. This office has been held by the same person over the nine years since the organization was effected. The co-ordinator has served in this capacity as a part of his work in secondary education and in addition to the full time load carried at his institution. It is quite likely that the organization would have accomplished more if the co-ordinator had had at least half time to devote to the work.

At the outset it was planned to have the Study operate through two bodies. One was the relatively large Advisory Council. It consisted of thirty-four members equally representative of the colleges and high schools of the state. The college members were appointed by the presidents of the two college organizations and the high-school representatives were appointed by the president of the Principals'

Association. It might be said in passing that this body has not operated too effectively because of its size and because the membership has fluctuated too much from year to year. If the executive officer of the organization had had more time to devote to the enterprise, it is entirely possible that the Council would have worked much better.

The second body was called the Work Committee and was the executive committee of the Study. It consisted of twelve members, two from each of several of the sponsoring organizations and agencies and one from each of the others, plus the co-ordinator as chairman. The membership on this Committee has in large part been permanent, a condition which has proved advantageous. In recent years, the president of the Principals' Association has been considered a member by virtue of his office, in addition to the two members he appoints each year.

MEMBERSHIP

Membership during the first year was limited to five schools, one very small school, three average-sized schools, and one large school. Selection was made from schools that applied for membership and was based upon the following nine criteria:

1. Membership in the Southern Association
2. Adequacy of instructional facilities
3. Use of the Evaluative Criteria
4. Approval by the local school board
5. Evidence of interest in the school and community for improving the educational offering
6. Relative permanency of the staff
7. Interest of the staff in improving the school
8. Understanding and support of the undertaking by the community
9. Submission by the school of a plan for self-improvement

The practice of selected membership continued for two or three years but was eventually abandoned partly in order to increase the revenue from membership fees and partly because of the work involved in the selection. There were 38 members the second year, 47 the third, 54 the fourth, and since that time the membership has hovered around 100. As stated above, the current membership is 154. The membership fee has been \$5 for junior high schools with fewer than 200 pupils or senior high schools with fewer than 200 pupils above the eighth grade, and \$10 for larger schools.

OPERATIONAL PROCEDURE

The chief procedures used in carrying forward the work of the Texas Study of Secondary Education are the following:

1. *Local projects.* Each member school is supposed to have at least one problem under intensive study. In the early years of the study, the school was asked to prepare an outline of its proposed

project prior to its acceptance as a member. As stated above, after the first two or three years the membership became too large for this plan to be followed, even though it was considered a good plan. A large percentage of the schools do carry on projects in connection with their membership and some of these are reported during the annual meetings of the study, while the results of others are published in the magazine, *The Texas Journal of Secondary Education*, which is sponsored by the Study. (Research Bulletin Number Five describes some of these studies. It will be sent upon request to the Secretary, Texas Study of Secondary Education, 217 Sutton Hall, University of Texas, Austin.)

2. *Consultation service.* All four-year colleges in the state were invited in 1943 to co-operate in the study by providing free consultation services. Ten state institutions, nine independent senior colleges, and one municipal senior college, or a total of 20 institutions, agreed to co-operate. Each indicated its willingness to supply an amount of service equal to $\frac{1}{4}$ of one typical college instructor's load, the services in most cases to be rendered by more than one faculty member. Rosters of these consultants were prepared just before World War II made its invasion upon college faculties. A very high percentage of the persons listed as consultants entered war services, and since that time this idea has not been reactivated. It is believed that the idea is a good one and plans are now under way for it to be brought back into operation.

In preparing the roster, the faculty member's field of specialization in education was indicated and it was made clear that schools could avail themselves of his or her services by defraying the expenses for the visit. It is estimated that on the average about thirty consultants have worked with member schools each year since 1943, although it should be made clear that since the war this service is not rendered in the name of the Texas Study.

3. *Conferences.* Two state-wide conferences of member schools have been held each year. During two years regional conferences were held in addition. The regional conferences proved to be highly successful in stimulating study of problems in the nearby high schools, but they were discontinued because there was no one with ample time to arrange the details in the four or five regions of the state.

One of the two state-wide conferences is held each year in connection with the fall meeting of the Principals' Association. It is usually a one- or two-hour meeting devoted to reports of progress and to the projection of new studies. The second conference is held on the first Friday of May each year for an entire day. The schedule for the day's conference is built to satisfy, so far as possible, the requests that come from the member schools. There are usually from 250 to 300 secondary-school administrators present during the fall meeting and about 150 to 200 present during the spring conference.

4. *Workshops.* During the summer of 1950 the Texas Study sponsored workshops in ten institutions throughout the state. On some of the campuses there were two workshops, one on Life Adjustment Education and one on the use of the *Evaluative Criteria*. In the others there was only the workshop on Life Adjustment Education. No record was kept of the total number attending these workshops, but it was probably around 500.

On two occasions, three-day work conferences have been conducted, one at Southern Methodist University and one at the University of Texas. Both of these were designed to train co-ordinators for visiting committees on evaluation programs.

5. *Research studies.* Each year several subjects are proposed during the fall conference as research studies. Several of these studies are underway constantly and all of them deal with the general problem of making the high-school program more vital to the high-school youth. Thus far ten research studies have been published and distributed rather widely outside the state as well as to all members of both the Texas Study and the Principals' Association. Two others are in press now. (These research bulletins are available at 50 cents each from the address given earlier in this paper.) Some of the studies have dealt with the student council, the home room, registration procedures, the study hall, life adjustment education in the high schools of Texas, and other similar problems that have arisen from the floor during the annual conferences.

6. *The Texas Journal of Secondary Education.* This magazine is published three times a year jointly by Texas Study and the Texas Association of Secondary School Principals. By policy it is limited to activities in the schools of the state, inasmuch as many other journals cover activities elsewhere. In a number of cases, member schools of the Study have reported their research projects through the pages of the *Journal*. It is the policy of the magazine to use articles that have been written by people in the field rather than by college professors. The *Journal* is distributed to all members of the Study and the Association, and is exchanged with a rather wide mailing list of magazines. It also enjoys a modest list of subscribers.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion it may be said that the plan just described has a number of weaknesses. No person has had sufficient time to devote to the undertaking. More attention should have been given to setting up and conducting the projects within the member schools. Closer touch should have been kept with the sponsoring organizations and with the co-operating colleges. A more systematic use should have been made of the consultation services. A better follow-up of the recommendations carried in the ten research bulletins might well have been made.

On the other hand, perhaps some good has been done. The schools are keenly aware of the problems of Life Adjustment Education. Many of them have developed systematic plans for in-service study of their programs. The *Journal* has become a fairly valuable medium for the exchange of ideas. A splendid co-operative spirit has been developed among the high-school executives of the state. The spot light has been placed upon research as a means for improving the secondary-school program. A number of good suggestions have come from the ten research studies, and in many cases improvements have followed. The Principals' Association has recently expressed the belief that its research agency, the Texas Study, has helped advance a program of Life Adjustment Education in the secondary schools of the State.

HOW DO YOU GET A STATE-WIDE LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM UNDER WAY?

R. E. CUSTER

A GLANCE at a United States map shows Kansas to be at the heart of the nation. Her people are inclined to be individualistic and to resist change. Consequently both good and bad things sometimes reach the state slowly. One of the good things with which many parents and educators have become concerned is an improved instructional program for all schools. Their banner bears the inscription, "Education for Life Adjustment." While many schools have been slow to take up this banner, there is evidence that interest in Life Adjustment is growing.

For years, school people had been seeking new ways to make education more effective. The meeting of the American Vocational Association in St. Louis in 1945 from which emerged the Prosser Resolution, added zest to curriculum interest in Kansas. The holding power of the majority of our schools exceeded the national average, but school people understood general instruction and holding power could be improved in Kansas.

Regional meetings of 1946 and the historic national conference called by Commissioner John W. Studebaker at Chicago in 1947 were attended by Kansas educators. Delegates returned home filled with enthusiasm. Soon, through co-operation of the State Association of Secondary-School Principals and the State Department of Public Instruction, a state Life Adjustment Commission was formed.

The sixteen members of the original commission represented the State Department of Public Instruction, teacher education institutions, and the secondary schools. Later, lay representatives from various state organizations were added. The commission now numbers forty.

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Labor unions, farm organizations, PTA, Chamber of Commerce, women's clubs, association of manufacturers, and the Kansas Industrial Development Commission, all are represented.

A director from the State Department, and an assistant director from the State Board for Vocational Education spend approximately half their time in promotion of the work.

Out-of-state leaders in Life Adjustment education were used as consultants at conferences and workshops. Dr. J. Dan Hull of the U. S. Office of Education; Dr. Chas W. Sanford, and Dr. Harold C. Hand, University of Illinois; Mr. C. C. Byerly, Illinois State Department of Education; Dr. J. G. Umstattd, University of Texas; and Dr. Harl Douglas, University of Colorado, all made contributions to our understandings.

Standards for participating schools were devised by the state commission. About thirty schools qualified. These schools were assisted in their work by consultants from the various universities and colleges and the State Department. Bulletins prepared by the commission and sent to all administrators were paid for by the State Department of Education.

Five survey instruments are ready for use on a state-wide basis. These include follow-up studies of graduates, drop-outs, guidance, hidden tuition costs, and students' interests and activities. A sixth, borrowed from the Texas Commission, known as A Self-Appraisal Check List For Life Adjustment Education, has been interpreted to hundreds of teachers in state teacher association meetings, and is also used as faculty study material in a number of schools.

State supervisors in their visitations discuss curriculum development with administrators and teachers individually and appear before many faculty and county teacher organizations.

Members of the profession are informed of what can be and of what is being done, through the monthly bulletin of the state department, the *Kansas Teacher* with its wide circulation, and occasional news letters. Sixteen workshops have been held in past years at various centers and Kansas State College at Manhattan is offering a two-week workshop in June for those interested in Education for Life Adjustment. Workshops on other campuses are anticipated.

The first annual progress report recorded the type of work done in twenty-five schools. The second annual report published recently deals with the accomplishments of fifty schools.

Much remains to be done; but teachers, administrators, and parents feel the cause is worthy; and interest is growing. It could be that a decade hence, improved products from the secondary schools may justify the aspirations and efforts of early advocates of Education for Life Adjustment.

HOW DO YOU GET A STATE-WIDE PROGRAM OF LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION UNDER WAY?

H. PAT WARDLAW

ALL INDIVIDUALS undergo a continuous process of physical, mental, and emotional adjustment or change, generally called growth. Growth may be random or it may be guided and directed. Guided and directed growth is education. Many agencies contribute toward the education of individuals but the school is perhaps the only one which has as its chief concern the development of each individual to the utmost of his mental, social, physical, emotional, and spiritual potentialities.

A school is an agency organized, promoted, supported and controlled by society in order to achieve guidance and direction of the adjustment or growth of youth, in mass form, and in the manner which society desires. Nevertheless, its chief function is the adjustment of youth as individual members of a group, because, only that education which has as its chief aim the social, personal, and economic efficiency and welfare of individuals is democratic education.

Education for the life adjustment of individuals in American democracy is that education which enables youth to live democratically, with satisfaction to themselves and with profit to society, as home makers, workers and citizens. Getting a state-wide program of education for life adjustment under way is, therefore, a great task—a task of doing something to encourage administrators, teachers, pupils and lay citizens to concentrate upon, and to react positively to, the real functions of the school.

I think all would agree that there is perhaps no one best way to get a state-wide program of life adjustment education under way. Several states have achieved general success but no one state has, to my knowledge, achieved phenomenal success.

For my remarks I shall, therefore, draw chiefly from the happenings in my own state and from my own opinions regarding the matter, as such opinions have been developed through reading, observation, and discussion with other enthusiasts in the field. I shall not attempt to outline a complete program but only to mention a few guideposts and give a few suggestions that seem pertinent to the problem.

We are all aware of the recommendations of the national commission regarding the organization of state committees through the chief state school officers of the various states. It appears, in this connection, that future success of state programs is more likely to

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come if there can be engendered considerable preliminary interest and desire on the part of various state groups or organizations. Such groups will, of their own volition, usually request of their chief state school officers the formation of a state Life Adjustment Education Committee.

Since much of the success of the state program depends upon the committee and its work, its members should be selected carefully. The membership should be composed of persons with the proper knowledge and zeal who can represent the various areas and levels of the profession such as classroom teachers, principals, superintendents, college teachers, admissions officers and the like. It should also include lay persons such as school board members and members of parent-teacher organizations.

Regardless of the composition and the work of the state committee, a state program cannot become effective without the co-operation and support of school administrators and teachers of the state and boards of education, lay citizens and pupils of the various schools. Obtaining their co-operation and support entails discussions, conferences, workshops, speeches, the circulation of literature, research studies, and many other similar means of disseminating information and creating desires leading to the improvement of educational programs.

Most administrators, teachers, and lay citizens are willing to work toward school improvement when they fully understand the conditions and needs within their local schools and can learn of effective improvement measures being tried in other schools. In most schools, therefore, studies of the school's holding power, what happens to graduates and drop-outs and problems of this nature are essential. Likewise, are teacher workshops and conferences and other means of reporting successful measures being used in other schools. Through magazines, bulletins, workshops, and the like, each state committee should provide means of factual reporting of effective programs and studies being conducted in local schools. Some provision for voluntary enrollment in a state-wide group, by local schools, may often provide the spark or incentive for studies and the possible resultant improvement of programs. Above all, a state program should not be forced upon the schools. Slow and steady growth and development on the basis of knowledge, zeal and the proper professional attitude in local school districts should give more promise of lasting results than growth of a mushroom type.

It is also important that at least three or four key persons from each state attend national and area meetings on life adjustment education problems in order that they may constantly feed back into state committees and local and state groups the knowledge and the ideas gained on the national or area basis. It is through this means that information regarding other state programs can be most effectively gained and utilized.

A final important item which should not be overlooked is the use of teams of consultants who are free to visit local schools and who are capable of giving excellent consultant services. Members of such teams should represent colleges and universities, state departments of education and local schools. By all means the services of teachers as well as administrators should be utilized. Team members should be well grounded in the functions of their job, should be skilled in rendering such services and, of course, should be provided time and travel expense for such undertakings.

And now, in summary, may I repeat that, in my opinion, there is no best way to get a state program of life adjustment education under way. Too many factors must be considered because of the variations among states and the prevalence of curriculum and other study groups existing within them. I have tried to mention, therefore, only items which seem to be worthy of consideration in any state regardless of conditions and existing organizations. The important thing it seems to me, is that the inertia for the program come from the local schools (below) rather than the state committee (above).

HOW DO YOU GET A STATE-WIDE LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM UNDER WAY?

ABLETT H. FLURY

THE INITIATION of a program of Life Adjustment Education in New Jersey was undertaken by the New Jersey Department of Education, through co-operative activities of the Division of Vocational Education, the Division of Health, Safety and Physical Education, and the Division of Secondary Education. Because the L.A.E. program appeared to be directed mainly toward general high schools, much of the responsibility for planning and development fell upon the late Heber H. Ryan who, until his death, served as Assistant Commissioner for Secondary Education. After engaging in correspondence with members of the staff of the United States Office of Education and after participating in several national conferences, Dr. Ryan invited the members of the New Jersey Secondary Schools Advisory Committee to add to their responsibilities the planning for State participation in the L.A.E. enterprise. This Advisory Committee is one which has long existed in our State. It is composed of twelve high-school principals and city directors of secondary education who serve by invitation of the Commissioner of Education. Promotions and retirements provide opportunity for the introduction of a sufficient number of new members from time to time.

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In accordance with plans devised by the Advisory Committee, a general letter was sent by Dr. Ryan in December 1948 to all New Jersey high-school principals inviting a response from those who were interested in participating in the national movement for L.A.E. Sixty-three schools responded to this letter and asked for the further information which had been promised. A second letter was sent to these schools. This letter described the characteristics of a profitable curriculum experiment and named certain essential features as follows:

- a. The purposes must be clear and definite.
- b. The educational procedures must be ingeniously and carefully planned.
- c. The necessary special materials and equipment must be available.
- d. The chosen procedure must be faithfully and systematically carried out.
- e. Results must be specifically evaluated.
- f. The whole experiment must be carefully recorded, in order that any school may repeat it with or without modifications.

This letter also suggested possible fields for experimentation and possible types of organization. A blank was provided for those schools who, on the basis of the newly provided information, wished to give firm commitment to a willingness to participate in the program. In filling out the blank, these schools were asked to give a brief description of the curriculum experiment, a title expressive of the objectives, a summary of content and procedure, a plan for evaluation of results, and a commitment that the needed teacher time and other extras would be made available. In the meantime, arrangements had been made with the State Teachers Colleges and with the School of Education of Rutgers University, the State University of New Jersey, to provide consultative service upon request of the participating schools.

Although the original plan established a limit of ten schools as the maximum number to which the Secondary Division could give adequate attention, there were more requests for participation than could be accepted. Eventually thirteen schools were selected to provide a rough sampling and geographic distribution. They began their work in September 1949. In October 1949 about fifty representatives of these schools met to compare notes. Each school described its project for the benefit of all. In smaller group sessions there was free exchange of ideas.

Another meeting of representatives from the participating schools was held in May 1950. Since the experiments were nearing the end of their first year, considerable attention was given to plans for the evaluation of the several experiments and to plans for developing the report on each.

The following fall, reports were received from each of the participating schools. The use of these reports was being considered when the sudden death of Dr. Ryan disrupted the work of the Secondary Division. The L.A.E. experiments had been set up on such a sound

basis, however, that they have continued under their own power. They are now midway into their third year. Reports continue to be sent to this office. A meeting of representatives of all the schools is being called by the Secondary Division in the near future at the request of the participating schools. A major matter of discussion will include the development of plans for giving other schools the benefit of the experiences of the participating schools.

In New Jersey, a number of our schools have had long and profitable experience with the Social Scientific Curriculum, developed under the stimulation of the Vocational Division. The objectives of the Social Scientific Curriculum coincide generally with the objectives of L.E.A. The present interest of the schools of our State in L.A.E. has gone beyond the records of the experimental work. In each of the national conferences on L.A.E. there has been representation from the Department of Education and from many of the local school districts. For instance, at the national conference on L.A.E. held October 10-13, 1949, of the 224 participants, 21 came from New Jersey. In many local meetings held within the State, L.A.E. was considered as a major topic. Within the State, many group conferences were initiated without reference to the Department. In planning local experiments, the thirteen schools made liberal use of the help of laymen in setting up values to be achieved and in judging outcomes. Laymen have also been present at many conferences in which L.A.E. was discussed.

In an early description of the project Dr. Ryan has said, "We have avoided generalities. There are many reasons for that. First, the New Jersey schools seem to be in no need of a general hypodermic.... The schools are and have been active in the attempt to make their work functional. Second, along the Atlantic Coast, high schools are prevented by college entrance considerations from making sweeping changes in the entire curriculum. Third, we are convinced that lasting effects of the movement will come from definite projects with discernible dimensions and unmistakable outcomes.... This has not interfered with anything which other schools have wished to do on their own initiative."

Three statements may be made to conclude this report. *First*, at the present time there is evidence to prove that the experiments in the thirteen schools have proved fruitful to the schools themselves. The results have been well worth the effort of painstaking planning. *Second*, it is apparent that other schools, either through knowledge of the national program or through contact with schools in the State program have been encouraged to continue to seek ways in which they may provide a more functional kind of education. *Third*, efforts to improve the schools reveal that the problem is rooted in community life and the program of improvement must go beyond the school. In L.A.E., as in any developing educational program, the difficulties of securing objectivity in testing and evaluation plague those who pioneer. Never-

theless, if public confidence is to be maintained, the evidence that the new is better than the old must be clearly stated, must be convincing, and must be secured.

Group XVII (Wednesday)—TOPIC: What Should the Principal Do to Initiate and Operate a Life Adjustment Education Program in His School? (Group XVIII, Monday and Tuesday.) and What Should the State Secondary-School Principals' Associations Do to Promote Life Adjustment Education? (Group XIX, Monday and Tuesday.) (*Groups XVIII and XIX on Monday and Tuesday and Group XVII were sequential and were Arranged by the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth of the U. S. Office of Education and the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.*)

CHAIRMAN: *Will French*, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York; Chairman, Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, National Association of Secondary-School Principals

RECORDER: *J. Dan Hull*, Associate Director of the Instruction, Organization, and Services Branch of the U. S. Office of Education; Secretary, Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, Washington, D. C.

SUBTOPIC: *How Does A Local School Co-operate in a State-Wide Program of Life Adjustment Education?*

SUMMARY: by *T. H. Broad* who is Principal of the Daniel Webster High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma. Mr. Broad was Chairman of Group XVIII, Monday and Tuesday.

INCREASINGLY school staffs are making systematic efforts to improve school programs for the boys and girls of their communities. They are seeking and securing the participation of non-educators in planning the school program in the community. Discussion in our groups of Discussion Topic XVIII on Monday and Tuesday evidenced great interest in the role of the principal in these improvement programs. Such interest is vital in a democracy. In no other nation in the world is leadership from school principals as necessary as it is in America. In a democracy the success of any program of curriculum improvement is closely related to the vision, concern, and persistence of the local school principal.

SUMMARY by Don Randall who is Principal of the Battle Creek Senior High School, Battle Creek, Michigan. Mr. Randall was Recorder for Group XVIII, Monday and Tuesday.

THIS is a brief descriptive statement of the discussions which were solely of an experience-sharing type. The issue and content items are printed elsewhere. More than one hundred participants from many different states took part. They seemed to be anxious to share problems and experience in the following areas:

1. Principal's role, is one of a "yeast" man, who needs to understand his own needs before he can effectively help others in the community understand theirs.

2. Life Adjustment education furnishes an approach toward real understanding and strengthens our democracy since it does not contain a formula or code to be followed. Rather, it depends on local autonomy for action.

3. An approach through modified methods or by adding courses.

4. The place of the PTA as a base of operations.

5. The sacredness and validity of stereotypes *versus* Carnegie unit, subject mastery *versus* character building, homogenous *versus* other types of grouping, the drop-out, the stay-in, and home visitation.

6. The group raised the following problems, but did not develop solutions:

a. Inflation and added cost of education

b. New building needs

c. Hostile attacks on educational programs

7. An approach through the core or common learning program seemed one acceptable approach to Life Adjustment education.

a. It has no blue-print

b. It is concerned with daily living

c. It is largely guidance centered

8. There seemed to be no formula for getting teachers prepared to handle life adjustment programs.

9. Friendly disagreements arose over:

a. Subject-centered *versus* problem-centered programs

b. The role of state departments of education

c. The role of teacher-training colleges

d. Elective *versus* required programs

e. Demands on teachers as to time and resources

Finally, and in a single statement, the participant seemed to be saying that: "Life Adjustment education can mean better education, providing the process involves the local community in a vigorous and honest program of discovering and meeting the needs of the youth of that community.

SUMMARY by Harold C. Hand who is Professor of Education at the University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

IN any effort to improve school programs, unless the dynamic to action is made and kept local, nothing of great importance will happen. Local people must decide what they want to do and how they want to do

it. When they have done that, they can use consultants to advantage for specific purposes. Any local program should move with enough deliberation to make sure that general understanding has been achieved.

In many communities in Illinois the school patrons believe in goals for schools which are generally considered life adjustment goals. They are not satisfied with the degree to which those goals have been achieved. It is the job of the state task force and allied consultants to aid local schools in finding ways better to achieve the goals they have accepted.

SUBTOPIC: How Does A State-Wide Life Adjustment Education Program Operate to Help Local Secondary Schools?

SUMMARY by C. W. Sanford who is Director of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, and Associate Dean of the College of Education of the University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. Mr. Sanford was Chairman of Group XIX, Monday and Tuesday.

TWENTY-TWO states were represented in Discussion group XIX on Monday and Tuesday. I believe we developed consensus that state high-school principals associations should organize to see that action occurs. Suggested steps are as follows:

1. A committee should propose a blueprint for action to be submitted to the association for revision and approval.
2. The association should request leadership from the state department of education.
3. Consultants from teacher education institutions in the state should be secured for local schools. (Consultants should help local schools eventually to do their jobs without consultants).
4. A state steering committee representing different groups should be appointed to guide the program.

If people can actually be involved, much strength can be developed from the unity of a state program.

SUMMARY by Francis W. Brown who is Superintendent of the Ottawa Hills Schools, Toledo, Ohio. Mr. Brown was Recorder of Group XIX, Monday and Tuesday.

THE SUMMARY

THE manuscripts of all speeches given on Monday and Tuesday, February 18, 19, will appear elsewhere in this report. I will not repeat the content of these speeches but will report the high points of the discussion and a digest of the outcomes and the conclusions reached.

1. *Life Adjustment Education* is a term generally applied to a curriculum which seeks to serve the personal and life-adjustment problems of high-school youth. This phrase does not refer to a standardized curriculum which can be handed to a school or adopted by a school as a specific entity. It is, in reality, a point of view to be adopted by a local faculty which will serve as a general goal for curriculum change. It gives purpose and direction to curriculum study in the local school. Dr. Galen Jones prepared a definition of Life Adjustment Education with supplementary comments, and mimeographed copies were presented to each member of the group for discussion. This definition and supplementary comments appears below. This definition was adopted without modification.

2. *A successful program of Life Adjustment Education* in the local high schools of the state will best be promoted and co-ordinated if the state department of education furnishes the state-wide leadership and co-ordination function. In many states, this is not possible or advisable at the present time, and, in these cases, the state high-school principals association or other representative state group can head up the state program. The essential point is that some state leadership which is competent, provocative, and permanent is necessary if local schools are to receive the services which will assist them in curriculum revision.

3. *The services which the state department or the state curriculum committee can render to schools are many; such as,*

- Give curriculum leadership and stimulate local schools to curriculum study

- Organize and conduct curriculum workshops throughout the state

- Publish literature and disseminate successful curriculum practices in other schools; publish research findings, handbooks and instructions which will assist local schools to make basic studies; and publish other helpful curricular material

- Organize the curriculum resources of the entire state and make them available to schools

- Share experiences and give local schools techniques and "know how"

- Remove roadblocks and obstacles to curriculum progress

- Enlist the support of colleges and subject matter specialists and supply consultants for local schools

- Give approval, prestige, and security to local schools who desire to experiment and try new things in curriculum

- Use its influence to modify graduation requirements and college entrance requirements if these appear to be a deterrent to curriculum progress

4. *The state curriculum committee or correlating agency* exists only to help the local schools. It must never be an authoritative agency or engage in any activities which will unduly influence or direct the curriculum work going on in local schools. It must never violate the integrity and thinking of the local school staff on curriculum matters.

- a. There should be no state-wide curriculum
- b. The state curriculum co-ordinating agency should have no legal authority
- c. It works with a local school only on invitation
- d. It exists as a service organization to organize the curriculum resources of the state and make them available to help local schools on request

5. *The state curriculum program must operate within a framework of policies and principles which are predetermined by a state steering committee.*

- a. The state steering committee should include representatives of all state-wide organizations which have an interest in curriculum
- b. It should include lay and professional members
- c. It should include representatives of subject matter groups, colleges, public schools, classroom teachers, administrators, and lay representatives
- d. This group should serve as a steering committee to direct the work of the state curriculum program to see that it accomplishes the goals intended

6. *The following policies and principles were presented and accepted as valid suggestions for the operation of a state curriculum program:*

- a. No official state curriculum should be developed for use in the high schools of the state nor should any specific subject matter or curriculum materials be developed by the state committee
- b. The state program must be permissive in character so that any local school can "come in" or "stay out" of the program
- c. The program should be basically "grass roots" in character because only the local staff, the local patrons, and the local pupils can durably improve the local curriculum
- d. The local facts and opinions must be recognized as basic but the state curriculum program can assist the local staff with suggestions and the "know how" for making local studies of curriculum needs. Facts about local needs usually serve as the starting point for curriculum work.
- e. Cost-free services should be supplied by the state curriculum program so that no school is excluded because of shortage of funds.
- f. Responsibility must be pinpointed so that some one person is responsible for carrying out agreed upon policies and actions. Certain things can best be done by local people, others by the state committee, and others by colleges or consultants.

These and other principles should be determined by the state steering committee to assure that the state program renders the services intended and operates within the framework desired by the schools and organizations of the state.

7. *A local steering committee is often helpful but if a local board of education or faculty or superintendent is jealous of its prerogatives, a local steering committee may be offensive. In this case, another method must be used to determine policy and direct the local program. The important thing is that parents, students, faculty, school board, and all groups must be in on the planning and have a voice in*

curriculum matters. If the principal or any small group formulates the plan and then tries to sell it to these other groups, it will probably fail.

8. *Basic studies undertaken by the local group* are a successful spring board for fact finding about local school deficiencies. After the local group digs out the facts about the school and community, they see at once the weaknesses about the school program and want to make changes which will improve the school services. Much good work is now being done in schools. A curriculum program should never be negative or condemn what is now being done. It should positively ask leading questions as to how successful the present school program is, where are its weaknesses and how can it be made better. A positive approach often avoids opposition.

The state curriculum program can provide "know how" in the form of handbooks of directions for conducting these local studies in a thorough and scientific fashion. The local staff might flounder in the project unless they are guided by the successes and failures of others.

9. *What basic studies have been found most helpful* in guiding local staffs in studying the curricular needs of the local school?

- a. The holding power study (cause and implication of drop-outs)
- b. Participation in extracurricular activities study (and the relation of this to drop-outs and curricular needs)
- c. The hidden tuition costs study (and the relation of this to drop-outs)
- d. The guidance study (adequacy of the local school guidance program)
- e. The follow up study (canvasses the opinions of school graduates, parents, and citizens as to the adequacy of the education and training received in the local schools).

When a local school wants to make any of these studies, the state curriculum committee should be able to supply a "know-how" booklet with all necessary materials and step-by-step directions and instructions regarding how to make the study, how to organize and interpret the facts secured, and how to use results. A study of results usually shows weaknesses and leads the local staff to want to improve the curriculum and school services.

10. *Local action and dynamic* is the only force which can produce desirable curriculum changes. Consultants can never replace local leadership. Unless the local group are fired with a desire to improve their services to youth and see clearly a goal they wish to achieve, no important or permanent improvements will be made in the curriculum. Temporary inspirations and window dressing activities are of little value. Real results can be achieved only by local initiative. The rank and file of the local faculty must become concerned; parents must become excited about the possibilities of better school services to youth; and students must think, plan, and participate in the program.

The above materials represent the consensus of Group 19. The group were unanimous in feeling that the state high-school principals

association holds a key position in stimulating and directing a state curriculum program. Even if the program is operated by the state department of education, the state high-school principals association should be active as an advisory group to see that the state program operates on sound principles like those suggested above. The state program should become a real service and co-ordinating agency serving the local high schools of the state which desire to improve their curriculums. The term Life Adjustment Education is merely a campaign to encourage schools to improve school curriculums and school services so they will better promote the personal development and life adjustment needs of youth.

A DEFINITION OF LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION WITH SUPPLEMENTARY COMMENTS*

From the time of its initial meeting in December 1947, the first Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth was importuned for a definition of life adjustment education. The national conference (May 1947), concerned as it was with appropriately meeting the educational needs of *all* American youth, nevertheless, decided to name the commission which it created by utilizing the phrase "life adjustment" which appeared in the Prosser Resolution. At a work conference convened by the Commission in Washington, D. C., October 11-15, 1948, participants developed and accepted the following definition:

Life Adjustment Education is designed to equip all American youth to to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society as home members, workers, and citizens. It is concerned especially with a sizeable proportion of youth of high-school age (both in school and out) whose objectives are less well served by our schools than are the objectives of preparation for either a skilled occupation or higher education.

At this same conference the Commission and the conference participants reached a consensus on the following statements in answer to the question, "What is life adjustment education?":

It is concerned with ethical and moral living and with physical, mental, and emotional health.

It recognizes the importance of fundamental skills since citizens in a democracy must be able to compute, to read, to write, to listen, and to speak effectively. It emphasizes skills as tools for further achievements.

It is concerned with the development of wholesome recreational interests of both an individual and social nature.

It is concerned with the present problems of youth as well as with their preparation for future living.

It is for all American youth and offers them learning experiences appropriate to their capacities.

*Prepared by Dr. Galen Jones.

It recognizes the importance of personal satisfactions and achievements for each individual within the limits of his abilities.

It respects the dignity of work and recognizes the educational values of responsible work experience in the life of the community.

It provides both general and specialized education, but, even in the former, common goals are to be attained through differentiation both as to subject matter and experience.

It has many patterns. For a school, a class, or a pupil, it is an individual matter. The same pattern should not be adopted in one community merely because it was effective in another. It must make sense in each community in terms of the goals which are set and the resources which are available.

It emphasizes deferred as well as immediate values. For each individual, it keeps an open road and stimulates the maximum achievement of which he is capable.

It recognizes that many events of importance happened a long time ago but holds that the real significance of these events is in their bearing upon life of today.

It emphasizes active and creative achievements as well as adjustment to existing conditions; it places a high premium upon learning to make wise choices, since the very concept of American democracy demands the appropriate revising of aims and the means of attaining them.

It is education fashioned to achieve desired outcomes in terms of character and behavior. It is not education which follows convention for its own sake or holds any aspect of the school as an end in itself rather than a means to an end.

Above all, it recognizes the inherent dignity of the human personality.

In co-operation with the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, the Commission promotes efforts (1) to retain in school all youth of high-school age and (2) to encourage for all youth appropriate education for effective home membership, work, and citizenship much more than custodial care. The Commission is different from other National Commissions in that:

1. It exists to promote action
2. It represents a joint effort of vocational and general educators to marshal educational forces in a national campaign

The need for the program fostered by the Commission grew from the facts that:

1. Most youth drop out of school before being graduated from high school (or before their eighteenth birthday) although
2. Employers in our industrial society are reluctant to employ youth under the age of eighteen.
3. Major emphasis in high school is upon educational programs which prepare for college entrance and for entrance into skilled occupations, although
4. Most adults work at jobs for which they could not have been given specific preparation while they were in school.

In February 1952, twenty state committees had been appointed or designated to co-operate with the national commission. School systems in the forty-eight largest cities had held two conferences and made systematic plans to find out why boys and girls dropped out of school and what they could do about it. Numerous public and Catholic secondary schools had renewed their efforts to study all pupils and to provide appropriate programs for them.

SUMMARY by Galen Jones who is Director of the Instruction, Organization, and Services Branch of the U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

THE Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth was established in the hope that a national representative group could and would assist in the acceleration of action in improving youth education at state and local levels. It was assumed that the U. S. Office of Education was the national agency organically related to all schools, public and private. Numerous professional groups requested the Office to take the responsibility of promoting action on the national level.

The Commission and the Office have recognized the importance and necessity of action at the local level. They have believed that security for local action could be enhanced by collaboration among local schools under state-wide curriculum programs. The Commission has proposed no new idea except the idea of actually doing something about a number of well-accepted educational documents such as the *Cardinal Principles* report of 1918 and *Education for All American Youth* of 1944.

Although committed to the policy of working primarily through state departments of education, the National Commission has grasped every opportunity to work with and through all voluntary agencies concerned with the education of youth. The Commission has a tremendous appreciation of the activities of the curriculum committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. The Commission has been pleased and even surprised at the interest in life adjustment activities. It is appreciative of the activities going on in many states and communities. It hopes it may continue to serve as a stimulator and clearing house.

A HIGH SCHOOL WEATHER STATION

The West Phoenix High School Science Department, Phoenix, Arizona, has set up its own weather station which is a fully equipped, standard meteorological bureau.

First General Session

Saturday, February 16, 11:00 A.M. Hall of Mirrors

Presiding: Joseph B. Chaplin, Principal, Bangor Senior High School, Bangor, Maine; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Presentation of Colors by Our Lady of Angeles High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; Sister Mary Hortense, O. S. F., Principal.

Audience sang the Star Spangled Banner.

Invocation by Msgr. R. Marcellus Wagner, St. Lawrence Parish, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Music by Our Lady of Angeles High School Band, Cincinnati, Ohio; enrollment, 700; Sister M. Carolyn, O. S. F., Directress; Esther Burkhardt, Student Conductor; Sister Mary Hortense, O. S. F., Principal.

Greetings by Claude V. Courter

Mr. President, Guests, and Members of the National
Association of Secondary-School Principals:

IT IS A privilege which I cherish greatly to represent the secondary-school principals of Greater Cincinnati and the State of Ohio, the Cincinnati school system, and the citizens of this community in extending a few brief words of greeting to your association at this, your 36th annual convention. We have been anticipating for a long time the pleasure which is now ours of being hosts to this particular gathering of leaders in the field of secondary education from all parts of the nation. We hope very much that we may discharge acceptably the responsibilities that we have assumed to make satisfactory arrangements for your meetings and for your entertainment, and to make the stay of each one of you in our community thoroughly enjoyable. We want you to remember your 36th annual convention long and well, not alone for the contributions it made to the progress of secondary education in our country during this critical period in the life of our nation, but also we want you to remember this convention because of the quality of our hotels, the friendliness and cordiality of our citizens, and the warmth and graciousness of your reception by the representatives of our schools.

Cincinnati is a northern city with a broad southern exposure. We like to think of our city as the "gateway to the South," and thus as

Claude V. Courter is Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.

having for a long time been exposed to the cordiality, grace, and charm of southern hospitality, much of which we like to feel we have assimilated. We like to call our city "the city nearest to America" because here is mingled with southern hospitality a typical cross section of the industrial might of our nation, operating in a civic atmosphere of good government, of faith in the soundness of American traditions, of tolerance of divergent views, of pride in home ownership, schools, churches, and cultural institutions, and of devotion to good old-fashioned American virtues. We also still like to call Cincinnati "the Queen City of the West"—a designation given to it by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow in 1854 in his poem, "Catawba Wine," when our hillsides were vineyards. He wrote:

"And this Song of the Vine,
This greeting of mine,
The winds and the birds shall deliver
To the Queen of the West,
In her garlands dressed,
On the banks of the Beautiful River."

The theme that has been chosen for this convention, "Better Citizens Through Better Schools," should make this meeting in Cincinnati of your association a particularly significant one. This theme strikes at the very heart of the present crisis in American life. The real crisis is not that we shall be able to build guns fast enough for defense and still have butter, but rather that we shall be able to build and develop schools fast enough to train better citizens. The immediate future calls for a quality and level of citizenship in our country that is capable of coping successfully with the grave issues that now darken the horizons of our economy, a citizenship that is able to so develop our economy that it may become the beacon light of a world economy based upon freedom, equality, and justice. The really great issue of the current scene which public education must now serve, particularly secondary and higher education, is that through the development of better schools American youths may be so taught, so counseled, and so inspired that they may not only keep inviolate their great heritage of freedom and democracy, but that they may also preserve in the world the traditions of western civilization.

It is in fullest expectation that this convention of secondary-school principals in their meetings here during these next few days will make significant contributions to these ends in the analysis and discussion of their problems, that we bid you welcome and extend the most sincere good wish that as a result of your deliberations here secondary education in our country may be pushed a few more steps toward a more completely satisfying achievement of its goals.

Greetings by Elmer W. Kizer

CINCINNATI, convention city for the 36th National Convention of the Secondary-School Principals, extends to you, the outstanding educational leaders of our country, a hearty welcome.

This city takes its place among the great cities historically, politically, and educationally. It was born in the year 1788, and at first was called Losantiville, meaning "town opposite the mouth of the Licking River." In 1790 it was renamed Cincinnati in honor of Cincinnati, a Roman War Hero. Politically, it has given to our country four great Presidents: William Henry Harrison, Rutherford B. Hayes, Benjamin Harrison, and William Howard Taft. Educationally, it has kept pace with the outstanding movements in the field. Cincinnati is now in the midst of an enlarged school building program.

I wish also to bring greetings from three state organizations—Indiana, Kentucky, and Ohio. May your stay here be a profitable one.

The theme of the convention, "Better Citizens through Better Schools," is indeed a challenging one. It is twofold in nature: first, when and how can better citizenship be attained; and second, what changes can be made in schools to bring about this better citizenship?

The philosophy underlying secondary education must be thoroughly studied in the light of the changes that are taking place in our school population. No longer can we claim a kind of caste system that has been prevalent throughout the years. No longer can we assert the disciplinary theory attributed to subjects in the curriculum. No longer can we say our chief aim is to prepare for college, even if colleges have reduced their requirements.

The changes in American Life are demanding a modern, functional curriculum. The development of attitudes, interests, appreciations, and loyalties is vital to the behavior pattern of our youth. We still hold to the seven objectives of secondary education and continually modify our curriculum to meet them. If the answer to better citizens through better schools is the Life Adjustment Program, then a more concerted effort should be made toward its functioning in the secondary schools.

As secondary schoolmen, we are confronted by more than a changed curriculum. The youth of our land is thoroughly confused; this confusion seems to be increasing as time goes on. Boys nearing eighteen years of age, even though ready to be graduated from high school, withdraw in order to choose their own branch of military service. Boys still in ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades have lucrative jobs open to them. Even the girls become restive and marry before graduation.

Elmer W. Kizer is Principal of the Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; President, Ohio High-School Principals Association; Chairman, Convention Committee.

tion, particularly if it means the boy of their choice is going into military service. If great numbers of our high school boys quit school to join some form of service, it would seem that the responsibility of education for better citizenship will rest with the military.

The prerequisites of any school have always been and still are good teaching, a good curriculum, and a dynamic faculty. If secondary schools all over our land possess these three, better citizens will be the ultimate result.

Address:

CRITICAL ISSUES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

HEROLD C. HUNT

BEFORE attempting to discharge the pleasant and important assignment that is mine this morning let me tell you how happy I am in the privilege of being with you. The occasion serves to recall my earliest professional experiences and it is with real nostalgia that I travel memory's lane back to the days when I was first a high-school teacher and later a high-school principal. Those are experiences I would never want to be denied although at the time of serving secondary schools in an administrative capacity I was firmly convinced that the role of the high-school principal was the most difficult of all in the field of school administration. Later professional experiences have not entirely erased this conviction. Working with adolescent girls and boys in the general age range of from twelve to eighteen is a difficult assignment indeed and one that necessarily taxes the ingenuity as well as the competences of even the most able and experienced administrator. But what a thrilling and satisfying experience it is! Even the prospect of blowing up along with the potential powder keg of youthful enthusiasm with its unpredictable reaction and response to the varied stimuli that make up the gamut of high-school experiences is challenge in itself although the uncertainty has been known to produce ulcers and gray hair! But

To be greeted every morning by a host of girls and boys
To share their latest victories and a hundred other joys
To see them take the flaming torch, and come right back for more
To watch them grow, stand up for right, down to the very end
To know they're really friends of ours, what finer than a friend
To feel so happy, yet so sad, the day they graduate
That's what it means to us who teach, and try to elevate.

Yes, the role of the high-school principal is a challenging one, demanding yet rewarding in peculiar degree.

This morning I am charged with the responsibility of discussing "Critical Issues in Secondary Education." I can think of no more in-

Herold C. Hunt is General Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois.

teresting or significant assignment and of its importance to this convention with its meaningful theme of "Better Citizens Through Better Schools" I am fully appreciative. I approach the assignment firm in the belief that within the framework of our Republic the schools must be concerned with a twofold responsibility—the optimum development of human personality on the part of each individual and the relationship of the individual to the larger social order of which he is a part. It is my further belief that the perpetuation of our Republic is dependent upon an informed and intelligent electorate and that the training of girls and boys to be reliant, resourceful, and contributing citizens is the concern of the schools in effective and co-operative relationship with the home, the church, and character-building, youth-serving agencies of the community.

To the extent that this is a working understanding, a partnership, between school, home, and community resources with each contributing to the maximum development of the individual within our industrialized social order there is an opportunity for constructive endeavor. Occasionally these relationships become unbalanced, out of focus, or in dislocation. When they do, problems arise. To the extent that these problems are serious they become critical. It is concerning some of these critical issues that I would talk this morning. Time will permit a delineation and discussion of only a few of the problems and with my listing, inclusion or omission, you may, of course, take issue.

HOLDING POWER

First among the critical issues confronting secondary education today I would list the inability of our high schools to retain their membership through graduation. A nation-wide mortality rate of fifty per cent is testimonial indeed to the inadequacy of our secondary-school program. Why do young people leave high school before graduation? Dillon's* significant study lists these reasons: preference of work to school; not interested in school work, discouraged because of inability to learn; failing and did not want to repeat grade; dislike of a teacher; dislike of a subject; the belief that more could be learned out of school than in school; money needed to buy clothes and help at home; desire for spending money; inability to meet school assessments and charges; lack of interest on the part of parents in school; influence of friends; and ill health.

Many of these suggested hurdles to successful high-school adjustment are surmountable. When our high schools come to know students as individuals, obtain their confidence, provide educational programs wherein students can achieve, give grade repeaters something new, show a relationship between education and life, provide occupational information, provide social experiences, give students a feeling of security,

*Dillon, Harold J., *Early School Learners*, New York: National Child Labor Committee, 1949, Table 24, p. 50.

recognize signs of trouble, afford personal recognition, provide for the above average student, develop a good record system, make efficient and effective use of records, help students select right courses, begin counseling early, obtain parent interest and co-operation and receive public support the situation will in large measure be remedied. That the order is a big one there can be no denial but if we are sincere in our belief as to the importance of a high-school education and recognize it to be a minimal education experience necessary today, then we will do everything we can to make possible its obtainment.

And as we give thought to ways and means by which we may be able to retain greater numbers in our secondary schools let us not overlook the improvement and enrichment of present programs that needs of our high school youth may be better served. Concerning those needs let a high school graduate, seasoned by six years of work-a-day experience, speak. Writing to a high school principal he asks:

I want to know why you and your teachers did not tell and teach me about life and the hard, critically practical world. I am a husband and a father working my way blindly from a high school intellectual to a respectable self-supporting voting citizen of the community. In this transition I am beginning to get an upper hand on the lower rung of the ladder of life for which your education never prepared me a whit. I wish I had been taught more about family relationships, child care, getting along with people, interpreting the news, paying off a small mortgage, household mechanics, politics, local government, the chemistry of food, carpentry, how to budget and live within the budget, the value of insurance, how to figure interest when borrowing money and paying it back in installments, how to enjoy opera over the radio, how to detect shoddy goods, how to distinguish a political demagogue from a statesman, how to grow a garden, how to paint a house, how to get a job, how to be thrifty, how to resist high pressure salesmanship, how to buy economically and intelligently, and the danger of installment buying.

REVITALIZED CURRICULUM

Another big order—and an important one! High schools meeting today's challenge are working on both the drop-out problems and the problems of revitalizing school curriculum—to better meet today's needs for American youth. Encouraging and significant is the latter area in the contribution of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for youth which holds that a good high school helps youth to acquire the basic tools of learning, to select activities which best prepare them for life, to prepare for, get, and hold a job, to maintain mental health and physical fitness, to be a good consumer, to do what is right, to be a good citizen, to be a good family member. Briefly, a high school is good when it meets the individual and societal needs of every youth of school age in the community.

That the modern high school built, equipped, and staffed is best fitted to meet the needs of our girls and boys of secondary-school age is generally conceded. I emphasize the point preparatory to listing another critical issue confronting secondary education. As an educator

and as a father of a son graduated last June from one of Chicago's Public High Schools I am concerned with efforts, increasingly successful, to attract our young people into college programs prior to high-school graduation. An early effort restricted mainly to one institution and there not popular has within the past year been resuscitated. The magic of millions has served to interest college presidents confronted with mounting costs and decreased revenues in an abortive educational program poorly designed to meet the needs of adolescent girls and boys few if any of whom require the stimuli, academic or social, of the modern college. The factor of maturation is important in the educational process of every individual, and maturation, as we all know, defies educational short cuts. If colleges are sincere in their efforts to help young people, why do they not admit them to advance standing *following* high school graduation, thus allowing them to study, work, and live in an environment better suited to adolescent needs than the sophistication of the college campus? The National Association of Secondary-School Principals will, in my opinion, do well to warn against the further encroachment of this trend supported currently from funds from one single source.

MILITARY TRAINING

The uncertainty of the future beyond high-school graduation is another critical problem confronting our secondary schools today. Failure of our Federal Government to clearly define the role of young men of draft age is resulting in growing indifference on the part of too many high-school boys to the completion of high school, to planning a college career, or to training for competency in the vocational or professional fields. The attitude of "what's the use, whatever we plan for is going to be interrupted" is far too prevalent today. Needed is a clear-cut statement that will enable young men to plan for the future with full recognition of the obvious need for some type of service to our Government which will be required of all who are mentally and physically fit. At what age that service will be required, its extent, whether it will permit deferment for some or all college students, whether it will embrace Universal Military Training, Universal Military Service, some other plan or a combination of plans should, without delay, be spelled out. On this matter this Association should be articulate.

PROSELYTING

In still another area, too often not regarded as the concern of the secondary-school administrator but with which definite identification should no longer be delayed, this Association should be heard. I refer to the proselyting of high-school athletes. While I hail the pronouncement and the recommendations contained in the report recently issued by a committee of college and university presidents, I regret

that the American Council on Education, under whose auspices the committee was named and functioned, did not see fit to include representation from this Association and from the American Association of School Administrators. High School principals and school superintendents have for years been mindful of abuses in the recruiting by colleges and universities of promising high-school athletes. Let me emphasize that practices in certain of our colleges and universities in awarding athletic scholarships and in virtually subsidizing successful high-school athletes requiring too often in turn athletic rather than scholastic priority constitute a problem of major importance for the secondary-school administrator. It seems incredible that admitted practices of tampering with high-school credits and falsifying transcripts could have escaped the attention of high-school principals from whose schools these young men had been selected. In the current program of de-emphasizing competitive sports, our high schools might well and properly take the initiative. Let our high schools individually survey their present practices to determine the validity of their own programs and then, having put their own houses in order, let them assume some share of responsibility for what is happening to their graduates. In my opinion secondary-school principals have no right to disclaim any responsibility for what happens once a student is graduated. Good counseling, obviously a concern of every high school, helps place some of this responsibility, at least, on the high school. And while current secondary-school practices in athletics are being evaluated with a view to correcting evils and in influencing college and university athletic programs, let the secondary-school principals once again cast evaluative eyes on the other phases of the extra- or co-curricular programs. Encouraging indeed is what has already been accomplished through the leadership this Association has afforded but much remains to be done.

ATTACKS ON EDUCATION

Another critical issue to which I must call your attention concerns the altogether too prevalent attacks on public education. In my experience as a schoolman I cannot recall any period when these attacks have been so pronounced and so vicious. Here let me make clear that I am distinguishing between the constructive and the destructive critic. School administrators, if they are worthy of the name, welcome honest appraisal and evaluation of the school program. Such a practice I have already engaged in this morning in suggesting, as I have, needed educational changes and reforms if our secondary schools are going to serve adequately our young people. When I speak of attacks on public education I am referring to organized efforts to discredit our schools. These efforts manifest themselves in different ways in different communities. In one community the attack may be directed against the educational program of the school. Commonly it is referred to as de-

mand "to return to the fundamentals." Obviously it is deeper than that. Just what is meant by the fundamentals is not entirely clear because the fundamentals mean different things to different people. The term has become a cliché—a rallying cry as it were. For the criticism, if by fundamentals are meant reading, writing, arithmetic, and spelling, there is little if any justification, because girls and boys in the public schools of the United States read better and more today than they ever have, write more legibly although surely with less need to do so today, have greater competency in the arithmetical processes, and can outspell the young people of any other age. All of this can be and is proved by tests of one kind or another. A few years ago in a city school system with which I was affiliated we gave the seventh graders a test that was given to eighth graders in Boston back in 1845. Although some of the questions were of little value or significance today the seventh graders of 1945 did far better than Boston's eighth graders of 1845. Furthermore, the factor of selectivity was not anywhere near as operative in 1945 as it was in 1845.

In Chicago we know by standardized tests that our elementary pupils are above the grade norms for the United States in all of the tool subjects. We know, too, that we spend more time on the accepted fundamentals than we do on other phases of the school program. What we know is generally known elsewhere, which suggests that the "fundamentals" are but the smoke screen for an under-cover attack on the schools.

What, then, are some of the basic reasons for the sniping that is going on in different parts of the country and that have lead to the upheaval of highly regarded and well organized programs of public education?

The most disturbing of several factors is basic and fundamental opposition to the concept that in a Republic education must serve all of the children of all of the people. Some lay people don't believe that. More unfortunately, some of our teachers don't believe that. True, there are not many who make bold enough to state such convictions openly, but by devious, subtle, and covert means develop such a point of view. They speak of "too many white collared trained individuals"; they criticize the ambitions of those economically less privileged than themselves; they darkly hint at a possible dislocation of our economy because of too much education; and they talk about "too much pampering" of children.

What these critics of the public schools really mean is that they favor class distinction; they believe in the rule of the "well born"; they are opposed to equal opportunity for all; and they do not want to be taxed for the support of the schools! About the cry "schools today aren't as they used to be" these self-appointed critics attempt to rally the discontents and the malcontents. Some find it a profitable pastime as witness the several organizations that have sprung up

with high sounding and altruistic names posing as friends of the schools but actively seeking to destroy them! Read if you will Arnold Forster's *A Measure of Freedom* published last year in which the author takes the exact measure of many of these organizations and of the individuals leading them.

Indeed "schools today are not as they used to be" and, frankly, they never were for that matter. Because we evaluate through our experiences it is not difficult to understand why agitators find it relatively simple here and there to arouse public opinion. We as school people have not done as good a job as we should in interpreting the schools to parents and to taxpayers. Not entirely humorous was the plaint of the father who wrote last fall to a high-school teacher saying:

I am neither old nor stuffy
I was tutored post McGuffey
And I cut my second dentals
On the good old fundamentals
So I'm worried by these new pills
Swallowed sweetly by your pupils
Won't you tip me off this Autumn
To the latest dope you've taught them
So's to help me with my dome work
Doing Willie's nightly home work
Thanking you for all the bother
I remain a baffled father.

We can ill afford to have baffled fathers or mothers or girls or boys for that matter. Ours is the responsibility and obligation to acquaint all who are in any way connected with the educational process of its objectives, its purposes and how it operates. Furthermore, this framework, to be successful, should be arrived at in a democratic, co-operative manner. As their name implies, the public schools belong to the public—not to teachers or administrators!

And it was in that spirit of co-operative endeavor that the teacher answered the poetic inquiry replying:

Thank you kindly for your letter
Sorry we don't know you better
Methods change in school you know
Otherwise we couldn't grow
Homework shouldn't be a bother
It's for Willie, not for father.

COST

Another large segment of criticism of the schools springs from their cost. Here the issue is more in the open. It is stated candidly and bluntly, "The schools cost too much money." An analysis of this criticism is revealing. Frequently what is meant is that all taxes are too high today and they must somehow come down. Curiously enough, the criticism of the cost of public education stems in part at

least from the convictions of impotence on the part of the taxpayer concerning the ever mounting cost of our Federal Government and a desire, therefore, to meet the issue on local and state levels where he feels more competent to cope with it. Such a position is understandable. In 1915, for example, the Federal Government received 30.1% of all taxes collected, the States 18.1%, and the local units of Government (including school districts) 51.8%. Today, however, the Federal Government collects more than 75% of all taxes, with the States accounting for approximately 13% and the local units of Government 12%. Those of us who feel that education is primarily a local responsibility necessarily requiring the augmenting of local resources by State funds to guarantee an adequate program are deeply disturbed by today's tax trends.

In addition to those who do not believe in the principle of universality of education and those who are unwilling to pay for it there are those who prefer private and parochial education. Here in our free America such is the right and privilege of every American, let me make very clear. It becomes equally, however, the responsibility of those who believe in the institution of the public school and who see in public education the great instrumentality of democracy to support and protect it. Happily and encouragingly that concept, too, is the American concept. Let us hope that it will always endure, for if it does the public school will endure and will continue along with the private and the parochial schools to serve America's boys and girls. Such is as it should be.

SCARCITIES

Next on my list of critical issues confronting school administration today I would identify as our inability to provide facilities—physical and personnel—necessary for a satisfactory and adequate school program. Here the problem permits easier identification. Like the old woman in a shoe most school districts have so many children they don't know what to do. Within the next five years the elementary and secondary-school population of this country will increase by more than five million. Schools bulging at the seams will soon be bursting—bursting with girls and boys. Required to serve these expanding enrollments are more buildings, more teachers, more equipment and instructional supplies. The need comes at a time when our national economy is geared to military defense and preparation channeling materials and manpower into that activity. Building costs, double over a period of only a decade, are still going up with steel, aluminum, and other critical materials increasingly difficult to obtain. Wage scales mean little if anything in some areas and increasingly the formula "time and material" is being insisted upon by general and special contractors who find it impossible to guarantee any firm bid. Bond issues, voted and sold, to make possible certain definite pro-

grams are proving entirely inadequate, and school administrators and school boards are finding it necessary to do a lot of explaining to constituencies not always understanding and amenable. School buildings delayed in construction are further delayed in occupancy because of increased difficulty in obtaining equipment. In this category particularly are desks, tables, and steel lockers. Little relief seems in sight.

Even more critical, however, than building and equipment shortages is the situation confronting the schools in the matter of teaching personnel. Here a condition that has existed since Pearl Harbor not only continues but grows worse. Nation-wide, standards for certification have all but been abandoned and meanwhile with the obvious need, both at present and for the next five years, in the elementary field our teacher training institutions continue to turn out high-school teachers at a rate of approximately three for every one elementary teacher. The situation is alarming indeed. To meet it we must step up our recruiting program in our high schools and colleges, we must retrain teachers for elementary service, we must re-enlist former teachers, giving serious consideration to extending the retirement age (at least to permitting individual evaluation rather than mandatory retirement) and we must make the teaching profession more attractive. To accomplish the latter not only must salaries be raised but teaching conditions must be improved. Today's living costs, combined with the capital investment required in professional preparation, dictate a beginning salary of not less than three thousand dollars; while the experienced, competent, and well qualified teacher should be able to anticipate remuneration of not less than sixty-five hundred dollars per annum. Currently the National Education Association is advocating a beginning salary of thirty-two hundred dollars and a maximum of eight thousand. Surely teacher salaries—and those of administrators—must keep pace with economic conditions or the profession will be stripped of its ablest members. Conditions of employment, class size, instructional tools and equipment, and personnel policies are likewise important factors in making the profession attractive as is the attitude of the community in recognizing the contribution of the profession and the desire of its members not only for social acceptance but more importantly for the opportunity of living as individuals and not as prototypes out of antiquated fiction. Just as tenure has replaced the yearly contract which often reflected the whims and caprices of Boards of Education and communities, so should a "humanizing" process characterize the teaching profession in its many aspects. School administrators can do much to assist in this area as can Boards, the PTA's and civic groups. Improved conditions will do much to make of teaching a profession and not a procession!

The gearing of educational services and the utilization of the educational plant to the needs of the community must likewise concern

the school administrator today. Hugh expenditures of public funds as reflected in school facilities can only be justified when used to maximum opportunity. The school in the role of the dominant co-ordinating community agency may be anticipated in the years immediately ahead. The far-sighted school administrator will so plan.

Doubtless apocryphal is an oft reported argument between the late Dr. Judd and the late Dr. Jess Newlon which supposedly occurred at a Yearbook Commission meeting some years ago. To Dr. Judd's insistence on the inclusion of item after item in the Yearbook Dr. Newlon is said to have replied in an exasperated fashion, "Let me suggest that we have a final chapter—that it be entitled 'Heaven, Home and Mother' and that Judd write it."

TODAY'S SCHOOLS

Lest I be accused of adopting the inclusive tactics of Dr. Judd I must conclude. Let me do so on a note of challenge and optimism. While there are truly many critical problems confronting the secondary school today, I can think of no time when the role of the principal has held a greater opportunity of serving girls and boys than now. The problems themselves make our jobs attractive.

But with all of the problems confronting us, it remains that today's schools are good schools and that they are better than the schools of yesterday. The gains made by our schools during the last half century are unmistakable.

Today our schools do a more effective job of teaching the 3 R's.

Today they develop pupils who are better equipped to earn a living.

Today they invest more in our children's future. Thus, the nationwide average expenditures per school pupil is ten times greater today than it was in 1900.

Today they hold pupils for a longer period of time.

Today they offer pupils a much richer and more varied program of studies and activities.

Today they require much better education and training of teachers.

Today they co-operate more fully with the home and community.

Today they put a great deal more emphasis on human relations and international understanding.

Today they develop new materials of learning continuously.

Today they strive to shape school work to the child's ability and needs.

Today they utilize such modern devices as motion pictures, radio, television, and recordings.

Today they have replaced the little red schoolhouse, and other inadequate school plants of the past with large, modern, well-equipped school buildings.

Today they provide many important special services, largely unknown at the turn of the century. Among these are health and safety instruction, vocational training, and education for the handicapped.

Yes, today's schools are good schools. Good administration can and will, however, make them better!

STUDENT GOVERNMENT DAY

The Massachusetts state legislature recently enacted a law (Chapter 650 of the Acts of 1951) authorizing the governor to designate the second Friday of March as Student Government Day providing for the observance of said day in the schools and providing for a student senate and house of representatives. Section 12M of this law reads as follows: "The governor shall annually set apart the second Friday of March as Student Government Day, and shall by proclamation recommend that exercises appropriate to such day be observed in the schools of the Commonwealth.

"The governor, lieutenant governor, state secretary, state treasurer, auditor, attorney general and each head of a state department may select a high school senior and may permit each such student to occupy the chair and office of the appointing officer during Student Government Day in order to observe the processes of government in the executive and administrative departments of the Commonwealth. Each such student may be designated as student governor, or otherwise, according to the office occupied by him.

"There shall be a student Senate of forty members and a student House of Representatives of two hundred and forty members elected by high school pupils from districts corresponding as nearly as possible to the senatorial and representative districts, which districts shall be set up by the commissioner of education, who shall, not later than the third Wednesday of January, notify the principals of all the high schools in the Commonwealth. Such elections shall be conducted under the supervision of the principals of the high schools in the several districts and in so far as possible shall be conducted as are elections for members of the General Court. One alternate for each student senator and representative may be elected. Said students may assemble in Boston on the second Friday of March and may use the chamber of the Senate and of the House of Representatives for the purpose of the meeting, may elect officers, appoint committees, introduce bills, conduct hearings, receive committee reports, debate such reports and vote on the acceptance or rejection of the same, and in general conduct its proceedings in the same manner as the General Court.

"No part of the expense incurred in carrying out the provisions of this section shall be borne by the Commonwealth and no board, commission or department of the Commonwealth shall receive or expend any funds for such purposes: provided, that the commissioner of education may request additional clerical assistance, if required, from the director of personnel. Subject to the provisions of this paragraph any person or civic, charitable or non-political organization may make contributions for such purpose."

Second General Session

Saturday, February 16, 2:30 P. M., Pavillon Caprice

Junior High-School Section

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LOOKS AHEAD

Presiding: Harold B. Brooks, Principal, Benjamin Franklin Junior High School, Long Beach, California; First Vice President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Addresses:

THE ROLE OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

HARL R. DOUGLASS

DR. BROOKS, and fellow students of secondary education, I will feel a little better after I have been able to express to you the emotion and the satisfaction that I feel and the honor that I have felt for several weeks at being invited to participate in this program, the second time in this particular division of the junior high-school section of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. It means more to me I think than you possibly realize. When I came here today, I was asked by Paul Elicker, and one or two others, if I had my paper, and I said "Yes, I have my paper," and they said "Is that it?" And I said, "That's it." I want to apologize to you if apologies seem in order that I have not written out a paper or a formal document. If the things that I shall say strike the people that have to do with the publications proceedings as being worthy of publication, I will be delighted to go back home and dictate a paper which will be far more scholarly and much drier than I think my remarks in the next fifteen or twenty minutes will be. But I want to talk to you just as I might want to sit around a seminar table and talk to a group of people who are out in the forefront in the administration, organization, curriculum, and the other aspects of the junior high school. I want to say a few other things briefly by way of introduction.

To those of you who may not know, I want you to know that I established one of the first junior high schools in the United States. The history of education, the books on the junior high school never mention it and the California people wouldn't mention it anyway because this was up in Oregon, back in 1918. I have been tremendously interested

Harl R. Douglass is Director of the College of Education of the University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado.

in the movement ever since. The other thing I want to say, and I hope this will not sound too commercial to you, is that, while I am very proud of the work that Bill Gruhn did in that book in which he permitted me to put my name on along with his, we feel that the time has come for us to revise that book on the modern junior high school. I want to make a plea at this time, a request to you, each of you. Within the next eight or ten months, and preferably within the next eight or ten weeks, if you will send to me or to Dr. Gruhn, suggestions, criticisms, ideas, practices in your school that ought to be mentioned, anything that you believe might have a place in a book on the modern junior high school, we shall be greatly indebted. I know the book will be much better after the revised edition—therefore, your contribution.

I told Dr. Brooks coming in here that I had talked to various groups of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and various groups out in California and the California group of secondary-school principals and the principals in Long Beach, so many times that I don't believe that I have any more stories left, that haven't been told in his presence. I don't think I'm going to take much time to tell stories anyway. There is a story that has just come from Denver that I will pass on to you and we will let it go at that. Then when you are just about to drowse off here after lunch today, you might remember this story. As you may know a great many conventions are held out in cool, colorful Colorado. I invite you to come sometime in the summer. Among them was a regional hardware merchants convention. At many of these conventions some of the people don't spend all the time listening to speeches, they go out and see Denver and look at the mountains. It is a semi-arid country and some of those attending conventions get dry. Since there are no fountains on the streets in Denver, these men stop in such places as the Ship's Tavern and the Silver Dollar to quench their thirst. On this particular occasion, this man who was there must have been very thirsty. When he came to dinner—the banquet—that night, he was quite exhilarated—high altitude you know—he sat down. The room became a little stuffy. He had eaten a big meal. At the end, somebody got up and introduced a college professor to speak. The college professor made a rather good speech, at least if he had stopped about half-way through it would have been a good speech, but he spoke and he spoke and he went on and he went on. This gentleman, who sat just two seats from him at the speakers' table, putting his head down on his arm, presently fell asleep. Others became a little bored. They talked and, in the back row, you couldn't hear what the professor was saying. The chairman in charge thought that was a challenge to his authority, so he rapped for order. The speaker went on. Presently, the noise became still greater and the chairman was determined there would be order, so he took his mallet and he pulled it back to hit the table. As he pulled it down, the head of it flew off and hit this poor sleeping fellow in the head. As he

raised his head off his arm and looked around sort of bleary eyed, and as he saw the college professor still going, he said "Ah, hell hit me again, and harder. I can still hear him." I am going to make my remarks rather brief and I hope we won't have this situation develop with too many.

My topic is the "Role of the Junior High School." I want to pick a certain aspect of it, what I think today, 1952, is the principal's job in the light of the current needs, the current population in the junior high school. I want to pick what I think to be the most important thing for us to bear in mind—the function of the junior high school in a well-articulated system of education. I want to say at the outset the junior high school is in a key place to provide for continuity for articulation. I want to develop that point in a number of ways. I want us to remember that we now know that child growth and development is a continuous process. When a youngster leaves the sixth grade and enters the junior high school, over the summer he doesn't change into a different kind of individual, even though he or she might be changing into an adult and be growing rapidly.

When he leaves the ninth grade and goes into the tenth grade, he is not a different individual in three months. We should build a program which is in harmony with the modern concept of continuous growth and development on the part of young people. I want us to remember that the junior high-school period comes at a tremendously important stage in this growing. I want to say, as I have said to junior high-school groups throughout this country, let us not take our cue either from the elementary school or from the senior high school. We have a special job to do at a special period in the growth and development of young people. May I say in that connection, as I have said so often and I don't think it can be repeated too many times, let us address ourselves to the task of these particular youngsters. Let us listen but not be too much influenced by our brethren in the senior high school.

Here today to speak to you is a principal of a junior high school in Minneapolis. When I went to Minneapolis in 1930, I spent eight years at the University of Minnesota. While there, the thing that disturbed me greatly was the extent to which junior high-school teachers in Minneapolis and in St. Paul were tremendously self-conscious of what the people in the senior high school were saying about them and their product. I knew that the junior high schools in Minneapolis and St. Paul would not be what we had hoped they would be until they stood up on their hind legs and said we have our job to do and said to the people in the senior high school, "When we finish our job with these people, you take them as they are. Our job is not to make the job easy for you. You do as William MacAndrew, that great old warrior used to say about the colleges, he said that if the students entering the colleges were not as fit as the college professors think they are

or should be, let the college professors address themselves to the noble task of making them fit."¹

I believe that many junior high schools are not doing enough in the direction of providing the environment for young people to grow up in, to mature in the best way, partly because they are imitating some of the things of the senior high school. Have you carried departmentalization too far in your junior high school? Have you imitated the senior high school in that respect? Do you know—I am sure that most of you do—that this is being done even at the college level. It usually is the one that winds up last in the procession of progress—the elementary school, the junior high school, the senior high school, and the college. Even the college is beginning to put subjects together and cut across subject matter. I think we need to think whether or not departmentalization ought not to be introduced much more slowly, much more gradually and much less completely for youngsters of the junior high-school age.

The junior high-school youngster is reaching a stage of social and emotional development when he must be taught to feel that he belongs, that he is a part of something. I think it is much easier for him to feel that he belongs if he has fewer teachers. If he has one teacher who teaches him at least two subjects and another who is interested in him as an individual, as a person; if he is a member of one group of youngsters that belong together in something more than just one class; and if he has a teacher who may be the teacher of a core group, who knows his parents, this is helpful. Since the war was over, I have been in 126 cities in the last seven years—all the way from Maine to Florida, to southern California, to Washington, a dozen or so in Texas, and so on. I want to report to you, those of you who are as old-fashioned and conservative as I am, that the core program idea is growing in two ways in this country. Slowly, the number of schools who have the core program are increasing. I know that, I have the facts on it. The statistics can be gotten from the U. S. Office of Education.

It is growing in another way. It is growing more soundly. The core programs that I see today are on a sounder basis than the core programs we had ten, twelve, or fifteen years ago. The core program is growing more soundly because the public, the parents, are being taken along with it; they understand it; it isn't some mystical thing of which they eventually come to be suspicious and, at the suggestion of malcontent, they attempt to throw out. If you don't have the core program, I want to suggest to you that you seriously consider it. In other words, I believe that it is essential that the youngster has some group, something to tie to, in this maturing process so that we don't bring him through the sixth grade and then dump him into what you might think of as a mediocre senior high-school situation where he has a different teacher for every subject and no particular group of other students or no particular teacher that he can tie to in this continuous process of growing.

Another aspect of this continuity idea—and may I say that I think that that is the major aspect of the role of the junior high school—is to provide continuity. Another aspect of it is the social and emotional adjustment of these youngsters. I don't want anyone to lift their eyebrows when I say that I think that at this particular age social and emotional adjustment are perhaps more important than intellectual adjustment. To me, the person who lifts his eyebrows is exposing his ignorance. He should have children of his own, and study them. He should have grandchildren eventually and study them. I have a grandson who is in junior high school. He has learned to read. He has learned a great deal about arithmetic. He has learned to speak well. He has learned a lot of things in the elementary school. To me, I am tremendously interested not that he learn so much more arithmetic, or so much more grammar; I am interested in this little fellow that he learns to grow in a sound and healthy manner emotionally and socially in these years—the seventh, eighth, and ninth grade. He's got a thorough mastery of the fundamentals on the intellectual basis. I think we, as a part of our contribution to continuity, ought to examine every single youngster to see whether he, by means of sociograms or something else, he has adequate social contact in experiences with other youngsters. We should not permit the situation of having social "isolatis" develop at this particular stage when he is beginning more and more and more to believe that his happiness is associated with his acceptance by his peers rather than by his acceptance by adults.

I think in that connection we ought to see to it that each has the social experiences, not just extracurricular activities and parties and so on, that's helpful, but that he has a group to which he is tied in for social experiences as a part of this continuity in his growth. I want to emphasize with you also the fact that when they reach the junior high school these days, they are far more different from one another than they used to be. Throughout this country—it isn't in your district alone—I would say we now have practically universal promotion in ninety per cent of the cities of the United States—every youngster promoted a grade every year. I won't argue that *pro* and *con* other than to say that I am for it. I have reservations, there are arguments for both sides, but whether I am for it doesn't make any difference. It's here. It's been here. In the junior high school, we are going to have more and more of the situation of youngsters who can't do seventh-grade arithmetic and eighth-grade arithmetic, seventh-grade reading and language. In connection with this program of continuity, growth, remember that the continuity in growth suggests a continuity in program not for the average child because very few children are like the average child. Most children are different in one way or another from the average child, they're different in ability, they're different in the subject matter status, they're different in their interests, they are different in home background and so on. Therefore, continuity is an individual

matter, not a class matter. One could write a book on that—How to study the individual, How to know about the individual, How to provide for the continuity of the growth of the individual, not the class. That to me is one of the greatest challenges of modern junior high-school education.

I hope that you will not forget that, for some of your youngsters at any rate, there is a necessity of preparation for college. I am going to pause just a second or two for you to be a little astonished that I would say that. Yes, I think that you have as much a part to play in the junior high school for preparation for college as those in the senior high school. You know, and I know, that there isn't any particular subject that will prepare us for college. But you ought to know you have a job there which is also preparation for life, seeing that they have a precise and enlarged vocabulary, that's tremendously important, that's more important than studying Latin or geometry for most youngsters; seeing that they know how to express themselves accurately and precisely orally and in writing; seeing that they know how to use books. A junior high school should not be a place for one-book teaching in most classes. I am very much disturbed when I get into many junior high schools and I see the program so tight that there is no opportunity for the youngster to get into the library. I don't like that. I want youngsters to learn to use books, to go to the library, look around, and get different books and get ideas and organize them.

I think that each particular department has a job of developing habits and skills in the study of that particular subject. Above all, let me point out to you, the necessity for seeing that youngsters know their arithmetic well for college. It is more important for some students than algebra. And last of all—the most important thing perhaps of all is—that in your school, in an effort to get the youngsters to learn a little more history and geography, don't destroy the hen that lays the golden egg. It is the natural curiosity and interest of youngsters to want to know about the world which is opening and widening to them at this particular stage. Even if they don't do quite as well on the standard tests, don't do anything to cause the youngster to dislike or become disinterested in history, geography, science, art, music, or anything else.

As a part of the continuity, we need to work together with the home. We need to co-ordinate and to know what is going on in the home so that there can be a co-ordinated program. Remember that we constitute only a section of the environment of the youngster. His growth is being influenced by the home, by the radio, by his playmates, we are only one section. We are the professional section. It's up to us to exercise the initiative, to co-ordinate, and to understand what's going on, playing on the outside. I have been in a number of meetings this fall. In fact, I have done more moving about speaking to state groups and other groups, this fall so far this winter, than any

year of my life. One of the most amazing, one of the most rapidly growing, developments I have ever seen in education, is this increased interest in public relations, probably because we have been attacked so viciously and in such a dangerous way by various kinds of organizations.

I was over at Washington University yesterday in St. Louis, a conference of administrators, leaders in the St. Louis area. No matter what they talked about—curriculum, guidance, or anything else in their discussion groups and general sessions—it all came back to public relations. It all came back to working with the parents, getting the parents into the school. I learned a lot about what they do in Webster Grove, where they have a splendid program of getting practically all the parents in the schools and getting the teachers out of the schools. I noticed, particularly, at the elementary-school level and to some extent at the senior high school—but not much—and a little more at the junior high-school level, that efforts are being made to get the teachers out into the homes of the youngsters. It is particularly true that where they have a core program, where a teacher has only two core blocks to teach or at the most three, that teacher has an opportunity to get into the homes of all of her students. Where she has five or six classes to teach with 125 to 150 families, it is almost an impossible task. Here is another argument for the core or for home room where one teacher has a particular block or group of pupils for which she is responsible.

I want to tell you a little story that happened, a true story, in the state of Washington. I talked to a group of teachers at Bremerton, Washington, about home visitation, urging them to do more of it—for a number of reasons—to learn more about life so that they can educate youngsters for life instead of for college or books, to make good public contacts and friends for the school. It is far more than just telling them about the program, it is a matter of making friends, individual personal friends, and so on. When I got through, a teacher came up to me and said, 'Dr. Douglass, I would like to ask you a question. You have been around a great deal, I understand, and you are interested in this visitation. Tell me, what do you do in a case like this. About the third home I visited, I knocked on the door, the parent opened the door. I could see by her dress and appearance that she didn't want company. She had opened the door only about six inches. She said, 'Yeah.' I said is this where Mrs. So and So lives. 'Yeah.' Are you Harold's mother, I'm his teacher. She broke in 'What's he done now.' And I told her, 'Harold's done nothing, I just wanted to get acquainted with you.' Then she said, 'Come in.' I walked in and I looked around the room. I could see why she didn't want company. Finally, she said 'Sit down.' I sat down and wished I hadn't come. I was very uncomfortable. I wondered what I would say. They hadn't told me what I should say, they just told me I should visit the homes. Presently, the

mother said to me 'Well, will you have a bottle of beer.' Now Dr. Douglass what does a teacher do when a parent says, 'Will you have a bottle of beer.' " I told her "I can't tell you that, I don't know what the Bremerton habits are, or their tastes, or yours, and anyway what I tell you might not be a safe guide for you anyway." She said "Don't be facetious, I had a real problem, don't you see. I wanted to quarrel with this mother. I wasn't getting anywhere and I sat there and thought of all the different things, I couldn't tell her 'No, I don't like the nasty stuff.' I couldn't very well tell her 'Why, no I just had one.'" And I said, "Well, what did you tell her." "Dr. Douglass, I think I was out of my mind. I sat there wondering if I could run for the door, when all of a sudden my mouth opened and I heard myself say, 'Yes, I would like a good bottle of cold beer.'" I asked the teacher how it worked out. She said, "Oh, I don't know; the principal hasn't said anything to me about it yet." I said, "I don't mean that. How did it work out with the mother." "Oh, we drank the beer and after we finished we fell into the most friendly conversation." I said to her, "My dear, I don't know what the answer is for you or for Bremerton. I just know that if after you drink one bottle of beer, you fall into a friendly conversation, my advice to you is not to drink two."

It's been grand to be with you. I am not going to take any more time. You have a couple splendid people, principals of splendid junior high schools. I know these junior high schools—one by reputation, the junior high schools in Los Angeles and that area, and the other I know the Folwell Junior High School and the speaker from there quite well. I don't want to impose on their time. I want to give them ample opportunity to present to you what I think is a splendid message. I don't want to do to them what was done to me yesterday. I almost told this story yesterday. I almost told them the story of the Missouri farmer—I am a Missourian originally. A Missouri farmer who was out at his place one day, and the county agent came along and said, "You know, I would like to interest you in a new diet ration feed for your hogs." He said, "How long does it take you to get a hog ready for market." "Well," he said, "ordinarily, the way I sell them, about ten or eleven months." "Well," he said, "I can give you a diet you could get them ready in about eight." "Not interested," he said, "What's time to a hog."

AAPHER TO HOLD 57th ANNUAL CONVENTION IN LOS ANGELES, APRIL 6-10

Dr. Karl Menninger, educational director, Menninger Clinic, Topeka, Kansas, will speak at the general session meeting of the 57th annual convention of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. Other speakers for the convention to be held at the Hotel Biltmore in Los Angeles, April 6-10, include Dr. A. J. Stoddard, superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles; and Dr. Allison Davis, professor of education, University of Chicago.

IMPROVEMENTS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM

ROY L. ARNHEIM

CONSIDERING the subject, "Improvements in the Junior High School Program," is similar to peering at the gifts in Santa's sack. The possibility of finding what we are looking for depends on our approach and on our individual appreciation of values. This in turn is modified by the acuteness of our present school problems which act as a springboard for the evaluation of further improvement.

Improvement and progress normally follow an understanding of aims, functions, and objectives. Such general agreement on the functions of the junior high-school program now exists that further discussion in that area seems unnecessary. There have been, however, certain changes in emphasis. The degree of this change varies in local districts in proportion to a renewed appraisal of the needs of the children of the areas concerned. Administrators, Boards of Education, community and teacher organizations, parents and interested citizens, in seeking to improve the junior high-school program, have all contributed to a varying degree in this redefinition of emphasis. It should be noted that within the larger city school districts, for example, in a city district in California that has thirty-nine junior high schools with nearly 50,000 pupils, further differentiation of emphasis may occur within the district in order to better serve local community needs. With this as a background, three areas of improvement in which significant progress has been made have been selected for presentation, namely: (1) guidance, (2) establishment of classes for the educationally and mentally retarded, and (3) the practice of democracy on the staff level.

GUIDANCE

The first area of improvement to be examined is that to be found in the guidance program. This is a field of much progress manifested in a broadened concept of service to pupils, in refinement of techniques, in selection and organization of personnel, in improved physical facilities, and in a working co-partnership with the community. Let us examine a typical and improved guidance program. What functions should this program perform? How is it organized? What personnel and facilities are needed? What should it be expected to achieve?

Junior high-school youngsters will always have problems to face. The first function of guidance is to help them in securing reasonable and satisfying solutions. We assist them in delineating their problems,

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marshaling their individual resources, and in arriving at decisions based on reason and on their present maturity level. If we do this well, we strengthen the individual by helping him to understand himself and the opportunities within his reach in the regular program of studies and in leisure time activities. He then is enabled to see his goal as determined by himself in terms of his own abilities and interests. He learns to handle the problems of human relationships basic to the success of living in a satisfying manner, whether at school, in the home, or at work or play in the community.

A second function that has generally crystallized is that of securing necessary information, of co-operatively interpreting it to the staff, and then of using this information and its implications in counseling pupils. If this is wisely and understandingly done, then the ideal of every staff member sharing to a degree the responsibility of group and individual guidance may be achieved. Information available includes an inventory of the special interests and abilities of individuals, achievement in various subjects, health and personality problems which may create special learning problems, home background and present relationships, and, of course, the pupil's changing personal goals and occupational objectives. The convenient availability of this information will in a large measure determine its use by the entire staff.

The third general function of an improved guidance program has been one of continuous development in assisting the school and its staff in understanding the community, and then working co-operatively with it. The staff assumes leadership in helping parents and community leaders in understanding the nature of adolescents and their problems. The school program for meeting these problems thus becomes more meaningful and is better understood by parents. Parents are encouraged to help their own youngsters in appraising, understanding, and solving their problems. Planning with parents is a useful technique to secure their interest. Members of the school staff are familiar with and work co-operatively with all agencies concerned with youth services in the various fields of recreation, religious or character-building activities, health, and welfare.

Let us examine for a few moments the organization of an effective guidance program. This is largely determined by the principal and is based on many factors. He interprets his own philosophy and understanding of the primary functions of guidance in terms of the needs of the adolescents of his school. He considers the training, experience, and background of personnel available, the socio-economic status of the various segments of the community, and the physical facilities of the school plant. He occupies a key position in the development and organization of the guidance program and should be well enough informed to give it necessary leadership and support. It is to be expected, therefore, that consideration of the variable factors has resulted

in no set pattern of organization. Organizational plans naturally involve all personnel—the classroom teachers, homeroom teachers, counselors, registrar, attendance supervisors, health co-ordinator, vice-principals, and principal. Whether full-time counselors are used, or a larger number of part-time grade counselors with other teaching assignments are included in the organizational plan, there are certain principles that are generally accepted. These are as follows:

1. There should be an understanding of the objectives and goals to be achieved by the entire staff.

2. The organizational plan should not be complicated and involved, but should be as simple as possible, clear and definite in its application to all affected by it—staff, pupils, and parents.

3. Trained, competent personnel are assigned to duties they can and will perform with definite delineation of their individual area or responsibility.

4. The facilities are carefully planned in order to secure the proper emotional climate as well as to fulfill the more strictly utilitarian requirements necessary for reception, testing, individual and small group conference, record keeping, teacher work space, and clerical station.

5. A periodic examination of the program is provided.

While the guidance program in its total application is a co-operative, operational, staff function, the counselors are the heart of the program in that they are the channels through which skilled assistance is rendered to individual pupils. The selection of the right person for the position of counselor is a "must." Though the qualifications are many and varied, counselors, above all, must be real people with an honest and sincere interest in helping youngsters adjust their problems. They should enjoy working with all kinds of pupils irrespective of racial, social, or religious backgrounds. Counselors must understand girls and boys and be able to recognize and accept their individual differences as a challenge to spur them into greater usefulness and achievement. They should know the community and its problems and be able to work effectively with its youth-serving organizations. An effective counselor works with and through all other staff members, particularly the homeroom and classroom teachers.

The homeroom teacher in many of our junior high schools has the same group of students for the entire three-year period. This is a key position, enabling the homeroom teacher to establish a close relationship with her students. This opportunity for mutual understanding and personal interest provides a good setting for the identification, discussion, and solving of students' problems.

One ever-present problem that seems to lurk in the background of most guidance practice is that of the amount of paper work. An organization can "bog down" from the sheer weight of the time used for record keeping. The counselors in particular should not lose sight of their guidance objectives and should use most of their allotted time for personal interviews. Naturally, counselors have routine tasks, such

as testing, keeping anecdotal records, *etc.*, but they are not expected to be extra clerical help.

One interesting technique that is used with variations in many junior high school is the case conference. By this device every member of the staff who may possess pertinent information participates in working out a plan of operation for individual pupils with difficult problems that have not yielded to previous routine treatment. Names of such pupils are submitted in advance to the vice-principals, counselors, attendance supervisors, registrar, health co-ordinator, and school nurse; they then gather and organize their information for the conference. A chairman, selected by the group, presents the problem and directs the conference, guiding the group discussion toward a possible solution. Information and background of the individual pupil under discussion are contributed by all present, each specialist presenting a portion of the many-faceted problem. As a result of the examination and processing of all pertinent facts, agreement is reached on a plan to be followed. The counselor then assumes the responsibility of activating this plan and of informing all other teachers and staff members concerned. A periodic check and follow-up is indicated.

SPECIAL CLASSES

A second area of significant progress in the junior high-school program has been achieved through the establishment of special classes for educationally and mentally retarded pupils. A functioning guidance program coupled with an alert teaching staff identifies those pupils in need of special help. Administrators have endeavored to meet this challenge with a variety of organizational plans dependent on the specific needs of pupils, factors of personnel, time available, materials, class scheduling, and community interest. Since conditions and factors vary, it would be difficult to select a remedial program that could be characterized as typical even though there are certain elements and practices common to all. A brief discussion of a single project may perhaps illustrate some of these common practices.

The initial step in the establishment of a projected remedial reading program is concerned with securing pertinent educational data on individual pupils—intelligence, reading grade placement, recommendations of class teachers, physical handicaps, psychological maladjustments, and social maturity. Consideration is given to the attitudes and emotions of the pupils under study. All information is catalogued by the counselors, and, in co-operation with the administrative staff, the number of remedial classes is determined. The master program is then constructed to facilitate the placement of pupils of similar needs but different grades in the projected remedial classes. Well qualified teachers, trained in remedial techniques, are selected. They possess patience extraordinary and must sincerely understand and appreciate

youngsters in order to establish that rapport necessary to counteract previous failure experiences. This strong, positive relationship induces that emotional stability which becomes productive in terms of individual pupil readiness to profit through remedial work. Much attention is given to the needs and interests of the individual pupils, the materials and methods of instruction, and the methods used in periodically appraising the progress made. A newly gained sense of achievement may well find expression in a happier, better-adjusted pupil, with renewed hope of solving other bothersome problems. Teachers, sensing these changes, gain that inner satisfaction of worthwhile activity, which finds expression in a desire for better training and a knowledge of more effective techniques for use in remedial classes. The spontaneous establishment of special workshops for interested teachers naturally follows. Truly, the interest and personal remuneration of the spirit to be found by our teachers through their experiences in remedial classes may well make this work a potent, growing edge in our junior high-school program.

DEMOCRATIC STAFF

Democratic and efficient staff relationships constitute a third area of significant progress in the junior high school. There has been, of course, a continued and ever-growing emphasis on the development of skills and the building of worth-while attitudes essential for an active, vital, participating citizenship of our girls and boys in school and community. Much has been accomplished in the development of the knowledge, resources, techniques, and emotional climate which are most productive in securing desirable results in good citizenship training. However, the idea has generally crystallized that the entire staff must subscribe to and practice good democratic relationships in order to activate properly the program on the students' level. This has been a real challenge to administrators, and a number of the practices co-operatively evolved are worthy of consideration. First, let us enumerate certain of the principles on the adult-staff level which have been refined by time and practice. They are as follows:

1. Knowing or understanding democratic procedures is not enough to safeguard the democratic way. This knowledge must be translated into purposeful activity through opportunities of working together on common problems.

2. Nurturing a sincere and genuine love of country which shines through the performance of daily tasks in whatever capacity the staff member works is another factor in democratic living. This is not a flag-waving technique.

3. Learning to operate democratically in the various relationships of teacher, department member, committee member, chairman, community representative, faculty officer, *etc.*, is essential. The smooth functioning of these interrelationships is important to the individual in obtaining competency in good democratic practice.

4. Working together, the staff becomes interested in the total school problem, whether it concerns hall and grounds cleanliness, first aid, custodial service, atomic bomb security procedures, subject fields, or citizenship activities. This in turn provides many areas for wide participation by all staff members working together as a team.

There are a number of interesting examples of techniques that have developed for faculty participation on the school-policy-determining level. One such example involves the election of a faculty advisory committee by the staff on a basis of departmental representation. This committee considers and processes all contemplated changes in the school's policy, while at the same time, it acts as an ever-open channel for ideas and suggestions from the entire staff. A similar committee in another school consists of the elected officers of the faculty group, while a third school uses the entire faculty roll as a list of nominees for an election of an advisory committee by secret, weighted, preferential ballot. Whatever the method used, and there are many, there must be no influence, expressed or implied, by the administration. The proper functioning of committees of this character will do much to achieve that intangible feeling of group unity, sometimes designated as morale. This is particularly true when the principal is willing to accept the recommendations of the committee and then translate them into active school operation. It is interesting to note that it is not unusual for the staff to initiate, organize, and participate in study groups and workshops directed at improving their own work in the classroom. This type of self-improvement is a logical outcome of active democratic participation by the staff.

The alert principal will ever be conscious of the many problems crying for attention and solution. His sensitivity and skill in inspiring his staff to attain their unlimited opportunities for helping in this task will succeed or fail in proportion as he guides, helps, and provides them with the freedom necessary for true democratic participation and partnership with administration. Progress and continued improvement will then be the result of their joint efforts.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion it should be noted that the improvements in the program we have reviewed today are an outgrowth of continuous analysis and study by both professional and community leaders. We should also remind ourselves that future progress is mainly contingent upon our willingness to modify traditional patterns of techniques and organization in accordance with changing conditions.

We have taken the "wraps" from three of the packages in Santa's sack—guidance, establishment of classes for the educationally and mentally retarded, and the practice of democracy on the staff level. They have been examined and tried for size. Many gifts, large and small,

still remain for us. As our needs become evident, we shall discover and pursue the appropriate course of action.

A SOUND EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM FOR OUR DAY

MALCOLM B. KECK

- ****How can youth learn to practice democracy?*
- ****How can teachers help preserve American ideals through good teaching?*
- ****How can learning and living in the classroom be improved?*
- ****How can youth learn the fundamental skills and basic knowledge better?*
- ****How can youth learn to understand himself and others better?*
- ****How can youth become more mature intellectually, emotionally, socially, morally, and spiritually?*
- ****How can the school help develop the skills, abilities, attitudes, understandings, and performance which help the individual*
 - to become his best self, and*
 - to become the kind of citizen who will be able to help perpetuate American ideals as expressed in the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, and the Declaration of Independence?*

A DESIGN FOR GOOD TEACHING

How Can We Create And Maintain A School Environment:

1. Where children are more secure and happy?
2. Where there is better co-operation and more teamwork?
3. Where teachers are able to do vital personnel and guidance work?
4. Where there is less petty griping and dissatisfaction among teachers?
5. Where there is less negativism, antagonism, and resentment among pupils?
6. Where there is less pupil-teacher conflict?
7. Where there is order, balance, respect, consideration for others, self-control, and good workmanship.
8. Where the needs, interests, and problems of youth are more fully met? (This includes moral and spiritual values.)
9. Where there is more opportunity for lay participation and parent-teacher conferences?
10. Where pupils can participate, take responsibility, and be respected as individuals?

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11. Where children learn the fundamental skills and acquire basic knowledge and understanding?
12. Where youth learns to understand, appreciate, have faith in, and practice American ideals as summarized in the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, and the Declaration of Independence?

During the past six years our school has made a concentrated attempt to do something constructive in the above areas. That includes or involves:

- The pupil's daily program
- The teacher's program
- The instructional program
- Meeting some of the emotional needs of youth
- An expanded program of pupil personnel and guidance
- Systematic parent-teacher conferences
- Teacher attendance in summer workshops and in-service classes
- Bringing leaders to the faculty who can give teachers inspiration and direction
- Time for teachers to work together
- Better classroom and building organization
- More adequate instructional materials (including a functional library)
- Movable classroom furniture
- Adequate case study of acute problems
- Constructive discipline and school citizenship
- Evaluation of results

THE SITUATION

The development of the United States is the greatest success story in history.

The initiative, imagination, and drive of our people under our form of government, combined with extensive natural resources, has enabled our nation to make great progress.

We seem to be witnessing a sense of insecurity and futility around the world. Such questions as these are being asked: Is our civilization headed toward destruction? Have men lost their sense of values? Can men learn to practice justice, to be humble, to be more sympathetic and understanding, to be less selfish, to attain a higher vision, to achieve higher moral and spiritual values, to express good will and live constructively? Will totalitarianism dominate the world?

Many of us grew up thinking that we were going to live comfortably in a secure world. We find now that we must learn to live in a world of conflict, anxieties, and tensions. There are good reasons for believing that it is going to be that way for some time to come.

In the midst of change and conflict, it is easy for fanaticism, fear, misunderstanding, hate, suspicion, selfishness, bitterness, or hopelessness to develop. Any one of these can be fatal to America.

In any country, a fanatical extremist (right or left) has the greatest possibility of taking over where the most individuals are upset, afraid, or frustrated in their own private lives.

Men and women on the job regularly in all kinds of work possess intolerances, prejudices, hates, frustrations, and fears, which make them less balanced—less rational—or less mature. They have poor mental health. As a result they produce less and achieve less on the job. They are not as happy and constructive as they might be. They do not get along with others as they could and should.

Children reflect what has happened to them at home and elsewhere. They reflect the tensions and conflicts of this hour. That is the reason teaching school is increasingly complex.

The future depends on better people—better parents and teachers, better business and professional men, better farmers and tradesmen. The institutions of America must help men gain the insight, the vision, the inspiration, and the courage needed in this hour. That is a real and vital challenge for our homes, churches, and schools.

The vital question is, "Shall truth or tyranny prevail?" We can lose our freedom by becoming like the forces against which we are struggling internationally.

To rediscover America and to reaffirm our faith in American ideals is a challenge to parents, children, and teachers in our day.

THE NEED FOR ADEQUATE SCHOOLS

The broad objective of public education is to develop the skills, abilities, attitudes, understandings, and practices which will help the individual to become his best self and to become the kind of citizen who will be able to help perpetuate American ideals as expressed in the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, and the Declaration of Independence.

The schools teach the 3 R's as well or better than ever but that is not enough. This is no longer a 3 R world. This is a world of jet propelled planes, atomic bombs, and antiquated prejudices and misunderstanding.

The school that is satisfied just to teach the so-called fundamentals at a time like this is a waste of time and money. A man today has to be able to live with himself and others in the midst of problems and pressures the like of which the world has never seen. That calls for better adjusted and better balanced individuals. It demands understanding and rational human beings. Youngsters can learn to do and and be better.

In addition to teaching the skills for learning, the school must be a laboratory for improving human relations. Unless they are improved everyone knows that the future is dark. We tell our boys that democracy is worth dying for. We must also tell them that it is worth living for, and then help them live for it.

Teachers are not perfect any more than doctors, electricians, or parents are perfect. Teachers are not all alike and it would be most unfortunate if they were. In times such as these every teacher needs and solicits the help and understanding of every parent and every citizen who cherishes the basic American freedoms. We must help all teachers do a better job than ever before.

Generally speaking, the constructive work to promote adjustment and good mental health among all children will have to be done by teachers and parents or it will not be done at all. We will never have the time, the money, and the professional services available for a psychiatrist to deal with each child on a person-to-person basis. The acute cases of emotional maladjustment should always be referred to the specialist. Real preventive work will have to be the responsibility of those in constant touch with all children, not just problem children.

Every week, mothers remind us that we have children in our schools who become ill when they get up in the morning and think about going to school. Such a pupil may become sick to his stomach, have stomach pains, vomit, become dizzy, develop a skin eruption, experience deviations in blood pressure, or run a temperature.

Teachers are dealing with America's children day after day. They are in a position to help youth put into practice the fundamentals of balanced living. In addition to subject matter, teachers should know the everyday fundamentals of psychology, psychiatry, group dynamics, social work, pupil personnel and guidance work, human relations, ethics and morals. The teacher must understand human growth and development.

Our country cannot be strong if the public schools are weakened. Our country cannot be strong without stable home life. Education is not a cure-all or the complete answer, but, without adequate training of our youth, America cannot remain strong. By developing better and stronger individuals who know how to work with others, we build a stronger nation. America can never be any stronger than its citizens.

If our people are concerned about what happens to America, they must understand and support good public schools.

We shall try to describe briefly some of the things our school has done—*how* we did it—and, to a limited extent, with what *results*. Please remember that the whole story cannot be reduced to the printed page.

We make no claim to perfection. We do not know all the answers. We are more confident about some of the answers than we were ten years ago.

THE PUPIL'S PROGRAM

In the elementary school the teacher has a group of 35 children and keeps them for the year. This is a sound basis for good personnel

work and good human relations. It is possible for the teacher to know and understand the individual child. If we are to get good results in business, industry, or the school, someone must know and understand the individual. This is the basis for the kind of personnel relations that result in better adjusted workers, greater production, and a more constructive outlook.

When the child comes to the junior high school in the 7th grade he usually has a six-hour day plus a home room and lunch period. Every hour he has a different teacher. Every time the bell rings he gets up and runs. This is the opposite from the elementary school. In early adolescence, at the age of 12, he becomes semi-anonymous. No one really gets to know him and understand him. Every hour he has a different teacher—and this teacher is dealing with 200 or more people per day.

Elementary School		<i>The Pupil's Program</i>		J H S Modified	
T		J H S		T T T T T	
X X X X X X		T T T T T T		X X X X X X	
English	Social Studies	English	Social Studies	English	Social Studies
Arithmetic	Science	Arithmetic	Science	Arithmetic	Science
Music—Art	Physical Educ.	Music—Art	Physical Educ.	Music—Art	Physical Educ.

1. Teacher handles all subjects.

The teacher gets to know and understand each child. She has a group of about 35 pupils and keeps them for the year.

1. Teacher for each subject and he deals with about 210 pupils per day.

The child has a different teacher every time the bell rings.

Impossible for any teacher to really know and understand each child.

Child remains somewhat semi-anonymous. Transition from elementary to secondary school is difficult.

1. Teacher keeps the child for 2 hours for English and Social Studies.

The pupil has different teachers for arithmetic, science, art, shop or home economics, music, physical education.

Each child has one teacher whose job is to get to know and understand the individual child. Instead of having 210 pupils per day this teacher has only 70 pupils (2 groups).

THE TEACHER'S PROGRAM

It is physically and mechanically impossible for any teacher to know and understand the individual child when he must deal with 200 or more people per day. There is no time to sit down alone with the child. The teacher has 35 youngsters in front of him now. The bell will soon ring and a new flock will come in. This process is repeated every

time the bell rings. The teacher prays for strength to survive until the close of the sixth period.

What does the teacher do when he is confronted with this kind of situation? He gives assignments, has pupils recite back, gives tests, and gives grades. The cycle is repeated day after day. I do not belittle or ridicule this procedure. Any teacher who has 5 classes a day and a homeroom must follow a procedure similar to this for self preservation. There is too much drill, memory work, and outlining. There is too little opportunity for pupils to take part in planning or evaluation, to take responsibility, to share experiences, and to be recognized and respected as individuals. It takes a wonderfully strong person to follow this type of program, keep everyone busy, keep order, and radiate nothing but sunshine and good will.

It has been proven that this type of procedure is not adequate. In our school for 6 years we have been trying to do something constructive about it. The teacher who teaches the English also teaches the social science. As a result, this teacher has a group of 35 youngsters in the forenoon and another group of 35 in the afternoon. In addition to teaching English and social science this teacher directs folk dancing one hour per week. The secondary teacher's work day is defined as 5 hours of instruction. The fifth hour includes: (1) pupil personnel and guidance work. The teacher keeps a jacket for each child. The teacher has the time and the room to confer with individual pupils who need help, encouragement, or direction. (2) This teacher has a conference with one or both parents of every child in this total group of 70. In some instances several conferences are necessary. When the parent and teacher understand each other better, we find that the pupil has a different attitude toward the teacher and his school. (3) The teachers in this program spend one hour per week working together on mutual problems. There is always more on the agenda than we are able to get done.

<i>The Teacher's Program</i>		<i>The Double Period Teacher's Program</i>	
5 classes and homeroom		(Has 1 group in A.M.—1 group in P.M.)	
1 Hr.	35 pupils	2 Hrs. English & Soc. Studies	35
1 Hr.	35 "	plus folk dancing 1 hr.	
1 Hr.	35 "	per week.	
1 Hr.	35 "	2 Hrs. English & Soc. Studies	35
1 Hr.	35 "	plus folk dancing 1 hr.	
Home Rm. ..	35 "	per week.	
	210 pupils per day		pupils per day 70
1 Hr.	for preparation	1 Hr. (A. Pupil personnel and guidance work	
		(B. Parent conferences	
		(C. Teachers working together	
		1 Hr. for preparation	
6 Hrs.		6 Hrs.	

THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

How does the double period instructional program compare with the instructional program when the teacher had 5 classes and a homeroom?

Different Class Each Period

1. Five classes and homeroom per day. About 210 pupils per day.

2. The emphasis is on memorization, reciting back, tests, homework, and grades. (Much of the subject matter has little relationship to the problems of youth now.)

Dead—dull—boring routine.

3. Teacher runs the show without pupil participation.

4. Emphasis on subject matter mainly. Test scores and I.Q.'s are vital.

5. Question and answer (Memorization.)

6. Textbook assignments mainly. (Rigid.)

7. No period for pupil personnel, parent conferences, building units of work, or working together.

8. Parent consulted only when something is wrong. (Parents largely disregarded.)

9. Contends that routine teaching cannot be improved.

10. Pupils who do not do well "fail" under the assumption that solves the problem.

Double Period

Two groups per day (teacher keeps each group two hours—has about 70 children per day—keeps a personnel jacket on each one.)

Not limited to routine drill. About half of the time is spent on the problems the people have now. (Units of work.) Pupils learn to do research, draw conclusions, express themselves verbally and in writing.

Interesting—alive—growing.

Pupils participate in planning and evaluation, assume responsibility, work co-operatively; room committees function.

Emphasis is on subject matter plus attitudes plus performance plus adjustment and growth.

Solve problems through discussion and weighing evidence; reach conclusions based on the facts. (Thinking.)

Textbook assignments plus excursions plus films plus school visitors plus units that meet needs and interests of the group. (Flexible.)

A time for pupil personnel work, parent conferences, building units of work, or working together.

The parent of each child is interviewed and consulted. (Parent included in the partnership.)

There are better ways for teachers, pupils, and parents to work together.

Teachers try to understand and know the pupil; accept, encourage, and interest him; respect his differences; help him develop himself; and keep him with children his own age.

THE EMOTIONAL NEEDS OF YOUTH

Many children and adults are emotionally upset and disturbed. All normal people have emotional problems.

Most of the discipline programs in school are due to the fact that certain pupils are having emotional problems. Much of the illness that develops during the day—the truancy and unnecessary absence—most of the negativism, antagonism, and resentment among youth—is caused by the fact that youth feels insecure or is troubled with other emotional difficulties.

Emotional problems frequently result in headaches, dizziness, stomach trouble, skin eruptions, or high blood pressure.

What are the basic emotional needs of every person? (People are not this way because there is something wrong with them. They are this way because they are human beings.) There are at least 8 basic emotional needs as summarized by Dr. Louis Rath:

- To feel that one *belongs*
- To feel that one is *achieving*
- To feel *secure*
- For freedom from *fear*
- For *love* and *affection*
- For freedom from *guilt*
- For opportunities to *share*
- For *knowledge* and *understanding*

When these needs are not met, one of four things happens. The individual becomes:

1. Bold, daring, and aggressive (A large part of the people in criminal institutions are in this group.)
2. Shy, timid, or retiring (Many people in mental institutions come from this group.)
3. Sick (When emotional difficulties are cleared up the patient usually gets better from illnesses such as hay fever, asthma, skin allergies, sinus, throat trouble, ulcers, indigestion, and intestinal disturbance.)
4. A fringer (He does not quite become a problem.)

If teachers hope to live and work constructively with youth, they must know and understand these eight basic emotional needs. Those who disregard them are usually unhappy in teaching or else they go into some other type of work.

There are important "do's" and "don't's" in each of these eight areas for teachers. For example: The understanding teacher never has children choose up sides, because some one has to be chosen last. He feels just as you would feel—that no one likes him or cares for him. As a result, he breaks loose and becomes a problem to the teacher and school. There are many things which teachers do to make children feel that they do not belong. When we make children feel that they belong we are not making enemies of society and liabilities for

the community. The understanding teacher soon discovers that he can do things for children through square dancing that he cannot do any other way.

Space here will not permit going into the suggestions for teachers in these eight areas. Any group of teachers who would improve the situation in their building must go to work on these basic emotional needs.

EVALUATION OF RESULTS

Briefly, I have tried to describe some things we have done in our school to meet the needs of youth. Much had to be omitted in this discussion. Here are a few significant results:

Attendance improved.

Truancy has almost disappeared.

The number of pupils who become ill during the day and ask to check out was greatly reduced.

Less than $\frac{1}{2}$ as many pupils were sent to the principal for teacher-pupil conflict. (Teachers have been urged to get negative pupils to the office before acute problems develop.)

Less than $\frac{1}{2}$ as many pupils received poor citizenship ratings as marked by teachers on the report card.

Pupil difficulties with substitute teachers have almost disappeared. (We have about 100 substitute teacher assignments per year.)

Greater co-operation and less resentment is evident in the halls, lunchroom, and auditorium.

Pupils take part more and express themselves better in the classrooms.

The number of library books checked out has increased almost 70%, indicating that pupils read more when they are interested in their work.

The achievement in the fundamental skills as measured by standard tests indicate that pupils are accelerated, on the average, about one year when they finish our school.

(There were no campaigns, no drives, no contests, and no added emphasis in any of these areas.)

HOW CAN WE IMPROVE OUR SCHOOLS?

Any school system that attempts to improve its program of education today must study, discuss, and do what is consistent in the light of the research of the past 50 years about such problems as these:

The Instructional Program

1. Why are some youngsters unhappy in, and bored with, school?
2. Why do some boys and girls drop out of school?
3. Why do some children achieve little in school—what interferes with or blocks, the learning process?
4. Under what conditions do children learn best?
5. How can the school better meet the needs, interests, and problems of youth?

6. How can we improve the classroom and building organization so that the instructional program is more effective?

7. How, and in what ways, can the curriculum be improved?

Adjustment Midst Tension and Conflict

8. What are the causes of tension, dissatisfaction and bickering among teachers?

9. What is back of negativism, antagonism and resentment among children and adults?

10. What causes so much maladjustment and frustration among parents, children and teachers—and how can we help people become more mature or better balanced?

11. How can the public schools help build more rational individuals and thereby help create a better world?

12. Why do we fail to practice the democratic ideals of America more fully in our schools?

13. How can we overcome prejudice, fanaticism, and bigotry that threatens to destroy freedom at home and abroad?

14. How can we help parents, children, and teachers better understand themselves and their neighbors around the world? How can we help people learn to live together constructively?

School—Community Relations

15. What misconceptions do parents have about teachers and schools, and what can be done about it?

16. How can our schools help strengthen home life and enable parents to do a more effective job with their children?

17. How can school-community relations be improved? What can teachers do to help parents respect and understand them?

18. How can we get the financial support necessary to improve our schools?

19. Who are the enemies of public education in America—what are their objectives—and by what methods are they attempting to achieve their objectives?

20. How can the public schools build and guard the ideals of freedom in a world struggling against the forces of enslavement?

CONCLUSION

This program is sound because the Constitution of the United States is sound. This program deserves to survive because American ideals deserve to survive. This is a worthy program because the dream for a better world is a worthy dream.

CATALOG OF APPROVED BOOKS

A. C. McClurg and Company, 333 East Ontario Street, Chicago 11, Illinois, has recently released a new book entitled *Junior And Senior High School Catalogue of Approved Books for School Libraries*. This book contains a classified, annotated list of 1600 approved books by subject for use in the junior and senior high school. Copies may be secured free from the company upon request.

Saturday, February 16, 2:30 P. M., Hall of Mirrors

Senior High-School and Junior College Section

UNDERSTANDING OUR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Presiding: Joseph C. McLain, Principal, Mamaroneck Senior High School, Mamaroneck, New York; Second Vice President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Addresses:

IS EDUCATION IN DANGER?

RICHARD BARNES KENNAN

IS education in danger? The answer might very well depend upon an analysis of the title of this talk to determine exactly what we mean by each word. But I prefer to give you a few examples of current difficult problems facing modern-day educators and let you draw your own conclusions.

Alfred B., principal of a medium size high school in a mid-western state is opening his daily mail. He looks up, startled, throws a clipping across his desk to you and says, "What in blazes do you make of this?" Attached to the clipping is an anonymous note reading, "Your days in this town are numbered." Excerpts from the clipping are: "The rising furor over the *impudence* of that *mighty parasite*, the miscalled 'System of Public Education,' is a public boon, even though the *racketeers* temporarily retain their old advantage. The advantage is theirs because they are dealing with a public which never was taught to define terms and examine ideas, but was just taught terms and ideas and gulped them. The racket was in charge of this teaching and served its own interests in the process...being *uneducated themselves* in any respectable meaning of the term, the teachers took to collective bargaining.... A teacher who today should have the *audacity* to inform a class of children that a belief in 'democracy' is not essential to education and could be rejected without implication of bad character would run a serious risk of dismissal.... For there are in current use, even in the *racket* of education itself, dozens of meaningless versions of democracy; and others are improvised from the tops of the head by *drooling bubbleheads* to suit their momentary needs.... After the early beginnings of American education," the clipping goes on to say: "The schools developed into *off-the-street-clubs* and, with the adoption of truancy laws, the parents lost custody of the kids to boards of edu-

Richard Barnes Kennan is Executive Secretary of the Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

cation, complete with *fly cops*, and a swarm of teachers who included a lot of *time serving battle axes* who took out their *envy* of married women on the married women's progeny."

You smile and say, "Oh, well, take it from whence it comes. Pegler has pretty well discredited himself by the virulence of his attacks on groups and individuals."

"But," says Al, "look at the lies he's telling. He says we don't teach analysis and defining of terms when those are the very things we try to emphasize today as compared with the rote memorization of details of the days when I was a pupil in school. And he calls us a 'racket' when anyone, who knows us at all, knows that we're too independent to become anywhere near as well organized as yet as most of the other professions."

"Pegler has never been noted for the accuracy of his statements when he waxes vehement," you say.

"But by thunder he does have some effect," says Al. "His column is printed in papers all across this country. He must be read by thousands of people. And apparently some folks believe him—at least one person in my district apparently thought enough of what he says to send me a copy. And for one person who writes, there are usually several who agree but don't write. We don't seem to have any folks telling the truth about the accomplishments of the schools to a comparable audience. If he and others more or less like him succeed, what chance is there going to be of having good public schools for the next generation of American kids?"

"He won't succeed," you reply.

"Maybe not," says Al. "But look at this maverick Hoiles who runs a whole chain of newspapers. He openly states that he's opposed to all public education. He says, in effect, that public education is socialism and compulsory education is Communism. Or take the Foundation for Economic Education that defines communism as the use of force to achieve social objectives and then, to its satisfaction, finds the schools to be communistic because of compulsion for attendance, achieve social objectives and then, to its satisfaction, finds has schools to be communistic because of compulsion for attendance, courses of study, etc. Why, if their ideas prevail, what chance has the child, even the gifted child, of parents with small incomes, to make his best contribution to the welfare of the country?"

"But, they won't succeed," you repeat.

"God grant they won't," sighs Al. "The great battle today is for the minds of men, and we need today the best intellects, the finest thinkers, the best informed and most efficient citizens we can produce to win this global war. It seems to me to be actually subversive to strike unfairly at the educational welfare of America's children today. They need help—not hindrance. They need encouragement—not suspicion. They need the best we can give—not the dwindling of our

already inadequate facilities. American kids are tops! They may not yet be as good as they could be if we had all the fine teachers and facilities we need—but I'll stack them against the product of any other school systems. It makes me mad to read such 'tripe!' But it makes me deeply troubled to feel there are folks even in my own town who believe it!"

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Let's leave Alfred B. and his problems for a bit and travel to another high-school office, this time to a little rural high school in a north-eastern state. Charles Q., the principal, is meeting with a group of parents and other citizens and is delayed. He drops into his chair, heaves a big sigh and says: "Are all high schools having our troubles? It seems that there's a new protest every other day. Last week it was spelling. This week it's Latin. A month ago it was grammar. There seem to be a score of little groups each wanting something special from us or claiming we haven't done a good job with some pet interest of theirs. The local editor says we don't teach spelling. Some of the merchants say we don't teach arithmetic. Each seems to compare all kids' achievements with his own special abilities. Maybe I'm wrong, but that's the way it looks to me right now."

"How many can you satisfy?" you ask.

"Sometimes I feel like following the example of Churchill in a recent story," says Charles. "The story goes that Stalin, Truman, and Churchill were having a conference and arrived at a complete stalemate. Suddenly an angel appeared and asked if he could help them to bring about World Peace. Stalin said 'Yes; just spread a cloud of deadly disease germs over the United States and kill off all the folks there and then we'll have peace.' Truman spoke up right off and said he'd like a hydrogen bomb that would wipe out all communists so the world could have peace. The angel looked dejected, but turned to Churchill, who just grinned and said, 'Oh, I'll just take a good, big cigar.' The angel brightened and said 'Well, that's easy. I can take care of you right away.' 'Oh, no,' said Churchill, 'Take care of the other customers first—I can wait.' —Well, sometimes I feel I'd just like to sit back and let these folks take care of each other. Most of them mean well, but the demands they make would require at least angelic propensities, abilities, and patience to achieve—and my staff is only human."

"Some dissatisfaction is normal and to be expected, isn't it?" you ask.

"Of course," says Charlie. "Schools are human institutions; they're never perfect. Sincere criticism is our best tonic. It peps us up; helps cure our weaknesses; and strengthens us for the tough battles."

"But it's the unfair, unjustified, unreasonable attacks that make me disgusted. Take those attacks on the textbooks. Last week a

school board member came in with an alleged review of Magruder's textbook on government, and it was terrible. It distorted meanings and lifted phrases out of context. And it was apparently based on an old edition of the book. It looks like another long drawn out analysis and possibly a search for another satisfactory book with loss of valuable time and money."

"By the way," Charles continues. "What is this *Educational Reviewer* that carried the Magruder 'review'?"

"It's a quarterly publication of the Education Committee of CASBO—the Conference of American Small Business Organizations," you reply. "The majority report of a Congressional Committee says they represent only a few businesses and those are not small ones."

"Is the editor an expert on public school matters?" asks Charley.

"Hardly," you reply. "According to my information, she never attended a public school a day in her life. And she has no children who have attended public school. Like some other such people, she seems to mistrust what she doesn't know or understand. She has indicated that she doesn't like 'tax supported schools.'"

"That must be why she keeps trying to prove that we are inculcating collectivism in our youngsters," muses Charles. "Collectivism! Phooey! We try to teach kids to stand on their own feet—to be independent! In the last war, foreign generals praised the remarkable individual initiative of our Yankee boys! That doesn't smell like collectivism to me. She reminds me of what my grandfather used to say 'If you go looking for bad and ugly things, you'll find them; but if you look for good things, you'll find those, too.' What satisfaction do you imagine she gets out of her efforts to create suspicion of public education?"

You shake your head in agreed wonderment and add, "Be glad you're not in Englewood, New Jersey, if the recent proposal of the board of education there is finally put into effect. It would require teachers to pick out all sentences or even phrases in textbooks or supplementary materials that, even out of context, might be interpreted to favor subversive action."

"Good grief," exclaims Charles. "Why, every newspaper every day probably has at least half a dozen such phrases if taken out of context. Even the Crain woman's publication would likely have them. That's an impossible job. Do you realize what the likely outcome of the efforts of the textbook attackers would be? First, we'd probably have state and Federal censorship boards, although they might not be called such, with a loss of local responsibility and control that is the heart of the American school system. And it could mean a constant tendency on the part of textbook publishers and teachers to avoid live, important material on social problems the youngsters must help to solve some day, and to use, instead, only innocuous, non-controversial stuff with a greater emphasis on indoctrinating 'safe' concepts

rather than trying to develop abilities to analyze, to seek the truth, and to reason."

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Let's look in last on Professor Edwin F. of the secondary-education department of a large western university. He puts down his big pipe and gets up to shake hands as we enter his book-lined office. "How goes the battle?" he asks.

"Pretty fine, Professor Ed," you answer. "But it gets discouraging at times. If it were an honest battle it wouldn't be bad. But when your opponent is as unscrupulous as Zoll, for example, you get disgusted."

"He's got a technique of sending his suspicion breeding material into communities at critical moments when a needed bond issue is to be voted on, or a school board election is at hand, or there is a referendum on a tax increase to meet the increased costs that the schools face along with everyone else."

Professor F. smiles. "He isn't the only one. The Education Committee of the California Legislature has recently, at least twice, appeared in communities facing critical school election issues to conduct investigations where they apparently were unwilling to hear any but the side opposed to the local school administration, for the most part. Such timing of what would appear to be prejudicial action by a governmental body is troubling a lot of us."

"Isn't it strange that some of the people sowing distrust of the public schools are given so much attention by people who once would have paid little attention to them," you venture.

"Yes," says the professor. "Zoll is apparently an opportunist seeking easy money. His record shows him to be a hate monger for he has presided at meetings where the cry allegedly was 'Throw out the Jews! Throw out the Jews.' He has also distributed a booklet *How Red Is The National Council of Churches?* which attacks Protestant church leaders."

"Well," you say, "he is now planning to expose the NEA. Personally, I'd rather associate with the groups he has attacked than with his supporters however. Some of Zoll's publications are aimed at discrediting Harvard, Columbia, and the Universities of California and Chicago, for example. Recently he charged that these and others such as Johns Hopkins and Wellesley had betrayed their trust and faith."

"Is it true that Zoll is a Fascist?" asks the professor.

"That's hard to say," you reply. "Two Attorneys General of the United States listed American Patriots, Incorporated, as 'fascist and subversive,' and Zoll was the executive director of that outfit. You'd expect the head of a communist group to be communist; so I would expect the head of a fascist group to be a fascist. The Attorneys General have been much more careful than most groups that have issued lists of allegedly disloyal organizations."

"The Morse article in the September *McCall Magazine* said Zoll had only a small office," comments the professor.

"That's correct," you reply. "It's strange that so much smoke can come from such a little furnace."

"You make a mistake there," challenges the prof. "Zoll may have a little office, but he has relatively large resources. A study of the reports of the House Select Committee on Lobbying of Congress shows that huge amounts of money are spent by groups that are apparently in at least informal coalition with Zoll. And there is evidence that he gets sizeable contributions to carry on his work. He's a clever boy—almost every one of his 'sucker letters' appeals to basic human interests—religion, patriotism, and self-interests. It's too bad at least an equal amount is not available to do an effective job of telling the truth for constructive purposes. Zoll has his greatest effect on people who are *naive* or mentally lazy—for anyone who seeks the truth and sincerely checks the basis of Zoll's charges will soon discover how shoddy they are. It's disconcerting to see how many people, including particularly a lot of rather nice elderly ladies, are accepting Zoll's propaganda without question. The product of the modern day school should not be as gullible as that of the schools of a couple of generations ago—it must not be if American freedom is to survive and grow stronger—and that includes academic freedom."

"Those last two words also are being badly abused today," you say.

"That's partly our own fault," rejoins the professor. "We've talked too much about academic freedom as freedom to teach when we all know that basically academic freedom means freedom of the student to learn. It means the right of the student to seek the truth rather than to be the slave of indoctrination and propaganda."

"Have Zoll and his kind really damaged our schools?" you ask.

"The damage is difficult to assess," replies the professor. "He has done some damage. If he reaches more people with his stuff, he can do more. The total damage will depend upon the action of school people and their friends. If, on top of all the tremendous load that teachers, supervisors, administrators and school board members are now carrying with inadequate resources and ever increasing enrollments; if they can do a far better job of real public relations; if they can acquaint the people in their communities with the truth about the schools, with the achievements of modern education, with the sincere interest of all educators to do a constantly better job for the children of the community—then it is possible that the present very real danger to the schools may be turned into a great advantage for the schools. A better informed, more interested school community will almost certainly be a more co-operative, more friendly group of school supporters."

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Is education in danger?

I've given you three case studies, not exact in details and quotations, but based on facts. Whether you realize it or not, some "attack"

material has undoubtedly come into the community of every individual in this gathering. One of the toughest jobs we have to face is that of differentiating between honest criticism and unfair attack, for the former is to be cherished and only the latter vigorously opposed. It would be better to suffer some really subversive criticism than to, in any degree, impede the free flow of discussion with those honestly disturbed but sincerely interested in improving the schools.

One final point I would like to make is that the present threat to the schools is a part of an even greater threat to all our basic freedoms. Freedom of the press is under attack as well as freedom to learn. No one living today can recall witnessing the threat to personal freedom that is developing in at least some areas of our country today. Perhaps those of us who live in or near Washington, D. C., are more aware of this danger than those in other localities. No one aware of the present world crisis will question the importance of loyalty among government employees, particularly those in key positions involving our national security. But it appears that, in the effort to assure loyalty, some agencies have actually reversed the normal relationship between the American government and its citizens. Instead of protecting the citizen against punishment for an alleged overt act prohibited by law unless proven beyond reasonable doubt, we now find groups urging that government employees be punished unless they can prove themselves innocent beyond the slightest doubt of acts which are not even unlawful. Such setting aside of a human right of ancient honor, is a threat to *all* American citizens. Each freedom has been won with blood and courage; it can be lost by carelessness and cowardice. We must be eternally vigilant in the defense of our liberties—our freedoms!

A short time ago in the foreword to a lesser known report of the NEA Defense Commission, Harold Benjamin wrote two sentences that epitomize the challenge of the present crisis; words that should be emblazoned in every school house, every board of education office, and every teacher training institution in this country: "Free men cannot be taught properly by slaves. Courageous citizens cannot be well educated by scared hired men."

Is education in danger? The answer is in large measure up to you and your colleagues throughout this country. If we work *together*, intelligently, effectively, courageously, and if we will work more closely with our friends and those who should be our friends, the danger can be averted.

Is education in danger? How much of the courage and patriotism of Nathan Hale do you have in you? How much of the vision and the effort to win public support that Horace Mann gave to our cause are you willing and able to give today?

Is education in danger? Look first to your own heart and will! Look next to your neighbor! And then answer the question yourself!

MEETING THE ATTACKS ON EDUCATION

BELMONT FARLEY

MY ASSIGNMENT is to speak to you about ways in which attacks on education are being met. I shall even dare to make some suggestions of my own for meeting these attacks.

"What to do until the doctor comes" is not an appropriate subtitle for my address. You are the doctor. I shall, therefore, offer prescriptions with confidence that they can be practically and immediately applied, knowing full well from my experience of many years as a high-school principal, that any use you can make of them will be conditioned by circumstances and personnel of which I am totally ignorant.

An important section of the San Francisco convention of the NEA last summer was devoted to "Meeting Organized Propaganda Against the Schools." A sectional meeting was devoted to answering the charge that the schools do not teach the "three R's"; another section was designed to answer the charge that the public schools are anti-religious; still another to the criticism that the public schools encourage "communism and socialism." Delegates reported charges made in their own school systems and described the action taken as a result of these charges. Because this section of the convention was unusually well reported by newspapers from coast to coast, it was in itself an effective method of meeting attacks against education.

ORGANIZED ATTACKS

Because we are holding this meeting in Cincinnati, I draw my first illustration from a project carried out in this city. Last May a national organization sent out form letters evidently tailored to the occupations of the persons to whom they were addressed. This letter was addressed to physicians and read in part:

Dear Doctor:

One reason—probably the chief reason—that socialized medicine is such an imminent menace is that the youth of this country for years have been indoctrinated with the desirability of state-planned medicine. This is one of the socialistic goals which many textbooks and innumerable teachers have been advocating.

America has almost been lost by default because the youngsters of the nation have been so thoroughly indoctrinated with the idea that the world owes them a living, that the government can—and should—take care of everything and everybody. However, an aroused citizenry of patriotic parents and other individuals has at long last become determined to put a stop to these nefarious activities in the schools....

To do a real job on that group, we need financial help—lots of it. This project is of the utmost importance—and every informed and patriotic American should assist in it—to the very limit of your ability....

Belmont Farley is Director, Division of Press and Radio Relations, National Education Association.

Whether you can send a large, small or middle-sized check to assist, please send one—as soon as you can—and as large as you can. It is an extremely important project, as you will see when the report is finished. As an expression of our appreciation for your help, we will send you a copy of the complete report.

Please help—to the *very limit of your ability*—for the sake of your profession, of the youth of the land, the very future of America.

This letter was received by medical practitioners in Cincinnati. One of them showed his letter to an official of the Cincinnati school system. This official took the letter up with the Academy of Medicine of Cincinnati and that organization inquired of the Cincinnati Better Business Bureau about the standing of the organization which had sent the letter. The Better Business Bureau obtained a complete story of the organization, including the fact that the motives of some of the officers of the organization had been questioned by the United States Department of Justice. The President of the Cincinnati Academy of Medicine thereupon wrote the following letter to the members of his Academy:

It is our understanding that you may soon receive a letter asking for financial support from a certain organization. Some physicians have already received these letters.

In co-operation with the Cincinnati Better Business Bureau, Inc., we are sending you herewith a condensed report on that organization so that you may be familiar with its purposes and the people who are connected with it.

Yours truly,

President, Cincinnati Academy of Medicine

There were no vilifications of the persons who had mailed this letter to Cincinnati doctors. No charge was brought against the organization. Objective facts were recounted. The drive against the schools among the medical personnel of this city was stopped in its tracks.

UNINFORMED CRITICS

Occasionally a criticism of the most sincere type may spring from ignorance of the learning process. I consider this editorial from a west coast newspaper in that category. The editorial is entitled "What's Best Method to Teach Reading?" The body of the editorial follows:

Without going into the pros or cons of progressive education, there's one thing that's hard to understand.

Modern pedagogues say that the sight reading techniques generally in use are better than the old ab-ei-ib-ob-ub phonetics of a generation ago. They argue that kids learn to read faster by sight reading.

So what happens? Along about the fourth or fifth grade a considerable group of youngsters aren't reading satisfactorily. So a remedial reading course is prescribed for these kids.

This remedial reading class just goes right back to the old foundation phonetics and the kids learn the ab-ei-ib-ob-ub word breakdowns grandpa did—and their reading deficiencies are "remedied."

Probably only a poor, dumb layman would ask, but why don't they apply the "remedy" before the cure is needed?

Yes, only a "poor, dumb layman" would ask the question raised. The remedial reading course prescribed for those who were failing to read is standard and in accordance with the best knowledge of psychology. It is not a method recommended for normal readers. It slows down the reading pace, but it is indicated for those who have strong auditory and weak visual imagery. When that diagnosis was made, the pupils with auditory imagery were given phonetics.

Suppose the instructor in mid-term had discovered a sick and listless child whom he found necessary to refer to the school nurse. The diagnosis was malaria. Immediately the victim was put on a quinine or atabrine diet, which is indicated in medical therapeutics. Suppose the teacher had reproached himself with the thought that if he had given the whole class atabrine or quinine from the beginning of the term, probably this one child would not have had the malaria. Such a procedure was recommended by the editor—that the entire class be given the remedial course to provide a remedy for the few who really needed it.

How should the school principal answer such a criticism? Just as I have answered it. Maybe he would use the mediums of public information such as the newspaper or the radio.

The answer to critics need not be from the platform, in the newspaper, over the air, or on the television screen. Personal contacts at service clubs, civic meetings, in the office, or on the street, offer countless opportunities to answer the critics of education. Some of these contacts may be of the most casual character and more effective by reason of it.

Last week I sat in my physician's office going through the routine procedures of the annual checkup. Between the taps of the rubber hammer and the instructions to "Now, say ah," I ribbed Doc a little about the resolution condemning the schools which was passed by the American Medical Association at the annual convention of that organization last year. I should hasten to say that the resolution was later modified, and that there is no friction as a result of it between medicine and education. But I was curious to know whether the physician, a friend of many years standing, knew about this resolution, and what had been his reaction to it. He knew. He had reacted. He hadn't changed his mind—much.

The following conversation illustrates what I mean by answering, in personal and casual contacts, some of our critics.

... And I do think something ought to be done about the schools," he summarized his tirade. "Why the other day I asked my daughter what the war of 1812 was, and she didn't know!"

"Well what was the War of 1812?"

"Why a war between the United States and England."

"Why wasn't it with France?"

"Why with France?"

"France was doing the same thing to us that England was doing... and for exactly the same reason."

"What was it?"

"They were both capturing our ships and impressing our sailors."

"What for?"

"England and France were at war with each other. Each nation declared a blockade of the seaports of the other nation. When our ships tried to run the English blockade of French ports, the British attacked us; when we tried to run the French blockade of the British ports, the French took our vessels as prizes of war."

"Then why didn't we fight France?"

"That's what I asked you."

"Was this War of 1812 on land or on sea?"

"On the sea. *Old Ironsides* was in it."

"How about the battle of New Orleans?"

"Oh—yes."

"Who led the British troops at New Orleans?"

"I don't know."

"What seasoned old Tennessean led the American troops?"

"I can't remember."

"What is the name of the treaty that ended the war?"

"Beyond me."

Doc picked up his flashlight and a spatula.

"Who was it didn't know 'what the War of 1812 was'?", I asked.

Doc grinned and said nothing as he wrote down the blood pressure reading and began to test the patellar reflexes. The examination was over. He said as usual that he thought I'd live another year. I turned as I walked out the door and said, "Send your daughter over sometime. I'll tell her about the War of 1812."

In Detroit a few years ago during the annual convention of the National Council for the Social Studies I arranged a radio quiz of high-school students that I hoped might give me a chance to speak with pride about the effectiveness of history teaching in the nation's secondary schools. This was just after the *New York Times* had passed out a history examination in which they reported that the respondents didn't do too well. You remember it. We didn't mention the newspaper examination on the air, of course. But anyone who had read the results of the *New York Times* test would have recognized this broadcast as an attempt to give "the other side."

These students were selected purposely. As a former teacher of the social studies I had no fear of being seriously let down by the three boys and one girl who had come from as many high schools in Detroit to face this ordeal. But I wasn't prepared for the exhibition they gave. The broadcast was unrehearsed. The students didn't know in advance a single question that was to be fired at them. They clipped off correct answers, even to obscure questions, so fast I feared we would run out of questions before we ran out of time. Where the newspaper had emphasized the failure of the lower quartile, we were trying to show what the upper quartile could do.

Most tests such as the newspaper one I mentioned are looking for failures. The report always gives the percentage who did not know the population of the United States, who did not know how far it is from Chicago to Memphis, who did not know whether CIO President Philip Murray is associated with the unions or the board of the Standard Oil Company.

Of course, no newspaper ever carried a story that John Doe is still living happily with his wife. The relationship of John Doe and his wife is not news until it becomes strained or ends in failure. We may console ourselves a little with the implication in this practice that school failures occur so seldom they are news when they do happen; that high achievement is commonplace—no news in it. But let's ask for re-emphasis. Let's give it ourselves. Let's talk a little more about what goes on in the upper quartile. Let's express the measure of achievement, for comparable purposes, in medians and be statistically correct. Maybe the best student in the class didn't know how far it is from Chicago to Memphis. Maybe no one in the class knew it. So what? If they all knew how far it is from Washington to Cincinnati, what is the capital of the state of Georgia, and where the Bitter Root Mountains are located, and most of the other facts asked for, they deserve credit for knowing them. We will memorize the distance from Chicago to Memphis the next day after the examination. When we answer criticism bolstered with statistics, let's demand that the statistics be properly interpreted.

TURNING THE TABLES

"Turning the tables" may not be a definite answer to criticisms, but they set the critics to thinking.

Recently a test given in the Oakland, California, schools required that a scrambled list of words be rearranged in the alphabetical order of the dictionary. The list included these words: strength, stagger, stage, string, strain, strong. This test was given to children of the sixth, ninth, and twelfth grades. Over a third of the sixth graders had perfect papers. At the ninth and twelfth grades, 85 per cent had perfect papers.

The members of a local service club were sporting enough to try the same test. Only 26 per cent of these adults turned in perfect papers.

One of the public relations projects described in *It Starts in the Classroom*, the recent excellent handbook of the National School Public Relations Association, "turned the tables" on all parents of pupils in a certain class. These pupils took to their parents a mimeographed copy of a history examination they had taken the day before. A cover memo accompanying the mimeographed sheet to dad and mother said, "Can you pass this examination? Your child passed it."

The same handbook recounts a dramatic demonstration of pupil achievement in spelling. An eighth-grade teacher in a community where there had been considerable criticism of school achievement in spelling challenged a local service club to a spelling match. Four of

the six students were standing when the last adult went down. He was publisher of the local newspaper. The editor's account of this spelling bee in the next issue is not related.

A sixth-grade teacher invited a newspaper reporter to take the series of achievement tests all students took before entering junior high school. The reporter did. He fell below average in some of the examinations. He related his experience in a series of feature stories and pictures in a daily newspaper. The articles helped citizens to realize that children in the modern school master more skills and information than many adults believe.

"Let us walk proudly" when we parade the fine achievements of our schools.

I have been quoting newspapers and referring to them in connection with stories of school failures. This is a good place to say that by and large the newspapers of the United States are friendly to the schools, and that, as educational mediums themselves, they recognize the importance of freedom of expression, freedom to teach, and freedom to learn. They also know how easy it is to make mistakes. An eighth-grade teacher was accustomed to require her class in English to identify all mistakes in spelling, punctuation, and composition on the front page of the local newspaper. That is an interesting exercise. Try it some time.

Newspapers, magazines, and books are a measure of the success of the school in teaching reading. Every day the American people buy 53,829,072 newspapers. There are 10,000 weekly newspapers, and 6,800 magazines circulated every week to month to American subscribers. People who buy reading material can read. In 1896, 35,000,000 books were loaned from public libraries; a half century later, 356,000,000.

The Division of Press and Radio Relations of the NEA has issued a leaflet entitled, *Schools and Fishin' Poles*, which contains some very convincing evidence that more children read better in the schools of today than did the pupils in the schools of yesterday. Local teacher organizations, or the school administration in hundreds of schools are circulating these leaflets to the homes of pupils, with the report cards or in other ways. Students today read more, they read faster, they understand better what they read, and remember it longer than their grandparents did. There is incontrovertible evidence of this fact, and it is our fault if American citizens do not know it.

To help in this program of information about school achievement the Division of Press and Radio Relations of the NEA is now printing *The Captain Had it Easy*, a leaflet interpreting the teaching of citizenship. It is also producing radio transcriptions for use on local radio stations or for playback to meetings of parent-teacher associations and other civic groups. A radio platter entitled *Threshold* shows how the modern school teaches reading; *The Kindled Spark* dramatizes the teaching of history; *The Goal Beyond* portrays the teaching of the moral

and spiritual values; *Tomorrow Won't Wait* is a human interest drama written around the amount of money spent for education. Write to us about these aids if you need to answer critics in these fields.

TEXTBOOKS

One of the most frequent charges leveled at the schools is that textbooks are subversive. Examination will disclose that the "subversiveness" charged is often a favorable reference, or even a quote, from a political platform to which the critic does not subscribe. *Fortune* magazine this month includes an article that well describes the political drama of our times as a conflict between those who want more "welfare state" and those who want less "welfare state." Between the upper and nether millstones of this conflict are caught the social studies and those who teach them. Modern education is based upon a philosophy which decries the indoctrination of students.

The organized profession has gone on record against the advocacy of communism in the schools, whether advocacy is practiced in word or text. It is a recognized principle in the code of professional ethics that teachers and texts *give both sides in controversial issues*, even controversial issues within the framework of American ideology. Critics of biased teaching or of outright propaganda masquerading as education may be found as frequently *within* the profession as *without* it. Many lay critics fail to recognize, however, that the textbook, especially in such subjects as the social studies, is only an outline, at best a tool, and that a paragraph of six lines on page 114 is not necessarily going to condition the thinking of the student, to the exclusion of the ideas set forth in the preceding 113 pages or the subsequent 330.

Those who attack texts should be told something about the nature of them. Authors and editors of textbooks are like editors of newspapers and magazines. They are apt to reflect the public thought of the moment of publication. To a certain extent, it is inevitable that they do so. A sudden change in the climate of public opinion produces an equally quick shift in the editorial opinion expressed or reflected in periodical publications. The next day after Pearl Harbor, the reaction of the American press was sharp and bitter. It spoke unkindly about the Japanese people, most unkindly. Suddenly, Japanese-Americans were taken from their homes and huddled together in camps for "protective custody." The Japanese cherry trees around the tidal basin of the Potomac in Washington became known as "Oriental cherry trees." Hate and fear of the Japanese, never known before, raged as the war became more intense. But the textbooks, some of them published five or more years before Pearl Harbor, kept right on saying that the Japanese were a kindly people, that they bathed regularly, and loved flowers and goldfish. Textbooks published during the war years may express opinions that will seem incongruous if and when Japan becomes our strongest ally in the Far East.

Textbooks written during the economic depression of the '30's; texts published while Russia was a battle ally of the United States, are likely to vary from opinions held generally today. This lag behind public opinion is inherent in a kind of publication that may not be revised in less than five years. The lag can be significant and serious.

Changing a textbook is not a light matter—either. A new state adoption can cause parents or the public treasury a severe strain on the pursestrings. It may even be some years before it is economically feasible to change a textbook. In the meantime, the teacher himself must make compensations for any changing emphasis or for any political or economic bias that an unwary author may have allowed to protrude. The teacher will do this with the use of a large reference library, through the use of newspapers, magazines and "current events" publications, available from many sources and now a common aid in the high-school social studies.

In most schools it will be the responsibility of the principal to see that this compensation is made, and to let sincere citizens who are offended by the anachronisms, or by the "slants" of a book know that this compensation is being made, and how. Critics should direct their appraisal to the whole educational experience, not at a few lines lifted out of context to make a startling revelation. It is our obligation to provide those who criticize textbooks a picture of that experience, which is as sharp and complete as possible.

It could happen, and undoubtedly has, that books with a bias have found their way into schools, but the rarity of that occurrence is due to the character of book publishing itself. This should be called to the attention of our critics. Textbook publishing is a sharply competitive business. Texts are a product of the American free enterprise economy. No publisher of textbooks is consciously going to permit the introduction of material into his books which will prevent their sale. It is utterly absurd to think of our great textbook publishers as propaganda agents for political or economic philosophies. Like other good American businessmen, they want to render a service and be paid for it.

FUNDAMENTALS

The most frequent of all criticisms against the school is leveled at "the fundamentals," by which the critics usually mean the "three R's." There are two types of critics who indulge in attacks on the fundamentals. One type desires to cut back the education of American children below the "thinking level." If there is any thinking done, they would like to do it.

There is another type of critic who assails teaching of the fundamentals. This critic has a child in school who isn't progressing as rapidly as he hoped. He may have hired a stenographer who cannot spell. He wants the school to do as well as it can. He thinks it isn't. He talks about it in a loud voice.

This critic may be sincere. Usually he is thinking about the schools of his own community. He can be the strongest ally of the schools. The schools belong to all people. Parents and other citizens have a duty to co-operate with members of the profession in deciding what we shall teach, who shall teach it, and how much we are going to pay for education.

After a century or more of organized public school systems it is time for the American people to make a general appraisal of education. They must decide what is really fundamental and whose responsibility it is to give the next generation the command of these fundamentals. Perhaps we shall find that the home, the community give less than their share to the education of our children. We hear often that the schools are not what they were in grandfather's day. Perhaps someone will discover that the years have seen great changes in homes and communities, too.

The most effective way to meet attacks on education is to remove the *excuse* for them. We can do this by making education the truly co-operative job it ought to be. There is already a well defined trend toward such co-operation. Never in the history of our schools have parents shown more interest in education. Never have they been more active in educational planning. School board members and parent-teacher associations are newly awakened to the responsibilities of citizens for the development of an adequate educational program. Hundreds of citizens' advisory committees have been created in the last two years to work with school officials. Many of them result from the efforts of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, which has inaugurated a nationwide program of co-operation such as we are proposing for local communities.

The high-school principal is cast in an important role of leadership as school and community sit down together to plan the improvement of educational opportunity.

The first decision to be made is, what shall we teach in our schools? Why the fundamentals, of course? What are the fundamentals for today's school?

Fundamentals are possessions or skills that are essential to successful living in the society in which man finds himself. They have been vastly different through the centuries. In one epoch of man's existence the skills of the chase and the arts of fashioning clothes from the skins of animals were fundamentals. There was no doubt about their essential character. Survival was not only the learning motive, it was the measure of achievement. A pastoral age made mandatory a knowledge of breeding animals and caring for flocks. Agriculture called for abilities in tilling the soil and crop production. A manufacturing age brought demands for craftsmanship, mechanical skills, and safety practices. An age of science demands technical skills and scientific knowledge.

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE HOME AND COMMUNITY

While the fundamentals have changed radically as the life of man has changed, the pattern of acquiring them has been similar in principle from the days of the cave man to the present. Each generation has learned in home and community, as part of the cultural heritage, the knowledge and skills fundamental to effective living, adapted and refined these fundamentals to the changes of their own generation, and in turn passed them on to the next. The home has always had an important responsibility in the transfer of this inheritance and its modification to changing needs. The home was the first school, and parents were the first teachers. Many fine parents still preserve the tradition of the home as an educational institution—a tradition that began in the days when the caveman showed his son how to string the bow and the cave mother taught her daughter the culinary arts around an open fire.

The early American home was a well-recognized institution of learning. There may be some who think "learning by doing" is a modern concept in education. It has been a principle of instruction since the beginning of homes.

In those "good old days" to which some begin to refer with nostalgia after seventy, every good home recognized its responsibility for educating the youth it sheltered.

There is a remarkable similarity between those what good homes considered fundamental and what our best schools today consider essential learnings. Vocational arts were acquired as a matter of course. Learning how to get along with others was a perfectly natural aim in the twelve children families of the 18th and 19th centuries in America. Essential for the present as well as for the future were the ideals of co-operation, mutual appreciation, the worth and dignity of the individual. Personal duties as well as rights, reliance upon self, a sense of responsibility for the welfare of others, the need to share the good things of life and to help others endure life's hardships—the great values of a democratic society were everyday lessons in an environment characterized by the close attachments of the family.

The family attended church service on Sunday—perhaps twice—"in a body." On the sparsely filled shelves of the home library there was perhaps a volume of old sermons, a Holy Bible. Maybe a copy of *Pilgrims Progress*. There was grace before meals. Christenings, weddings, funerals, were significant, reverent. They deeply touched the hearts of those who watched with joy or pride or sorrow the changes that life brings to those who are near and dear. There was no question about the moral and spiritual values. They were woven into the pattern of every day.

There was appreciation for the beautiful. Nimble little fingers worked on "samplers" to be admired by relatives and friends. A new dress, a marvelously-fashioned old quilt, a weather vane for the barn,

were works of art that added distinction to the homestead, and pride to the hearts of those who lived on it.

Discipline was no stranger to the home our forefathers knew. Respect for law and order was exemplified—and expected.

Industry was demanded. Ambition, determination were encouraged, achievement applauded. Misbehavior called for an accounting. Even in large families, there was time for individual instruction. There was wholesome recreation, and little dissipation.

These educational opportunities existed in the best homes, of course, but there were many of them. Where are they today? Has the home walked entirely away from education? Parents still love their children. They are solicitous for their welfare. They want them to have a good life.

But life is far more complicated now than it was a century ago. The large family home and its domestic economy in which youth was prepared for an identical domestic economy are far behind us in the stream of history. It had its disadvantages as well as its unique opportunities. No one could or would wish to reconstruct it. Modern times have brought industries to perform the manufacturing duties of the home. The family washing goes to the laundry. Breadmaking is delegated to the bakeries. The garbage is set out in the alley for collection. The children are sent to an institution called the school, which must somehow achieve all the formerly recognized educational responsibilities of the home, as well as many others. Parents change bakeries if the bread is below standard; they quarrel with the laundry if buttons are missing; some of them criticize the school if its effect on their children is not what they expect.

Modern parents have some educational responsibilities that they cannot abdicate. The school, created as an extension of the home, must still proceed upon the assumption that the home is an educational institution. The modern school must extend that assumption to the community itself. It is time for the American people to recognize that education is a result of *total experience*, and that a large part of that experience is in home, church, and community.

It is precisely in the field of education in what parents consider the fundamentals that the home has most to offer. No one could expect the home to introduce its youth to the intricate world of science that advances every day, to keep its youth abreast of history in the making, to familiarize its youth with expanding geography, mathematics, languages, industrial arts. No home can provide the specialized services in guidance, psychology, psychiatry, health and group activity found in the modern school. Teaching has become a great profession specialized in subject-matter fields that range from mathematics to music, and in methods that vary from audio-visual instruction to the use of braille.

But there are some learnings for which the home still has some responsibilities. They are fundamentals. A few months ago an examination was given to high-school sophomores in the City of Los Angeles. It was announced that a small percentage of those sophomores could not tell time by the clock. Is it possible that there are homes in Los Angeles that have no timepiece of any kind? That children left their homes for school every morning for ten years at a fixed time every school day without being taught by their parents to recognize that time when it arrived?

It was announced that 18 per cent of the sophomores taking this examination did not know how many months there are in a year. Is it possible that there are homes in Los Angeles where there are no calendars on the walls? That children who go to school each year nine months and have three months vacation and have done that for ten years, don't know how many months there are in a year? The business men of Los Angeles are surely as generous in providing customers with free calendars as they are in any city. Is it possible that there are parents who have permitted their children to arrive at the age of sixteen years without having ever helped them to learn anything about a calendar?

Sixteen per cent of the sophomores who took this examination given by the Los Angeles schools said they didn't know what event was celebrated on the Fourth of July. Can it be possible that the newspapers and radio and television in Los Angeles throughout the whole day—a holiday for all—make no mention of American Independence? There was a time—a time you and I can recall—when communities, or community centers, sponsored programs on that day. The mayor or some alderman read the Declaration of Independence. There was patriotic music—fireworks later, maybe. This is still done in some communities. Has the custom been abandoned in Los Angeles?

It is quite likely that some of the sophomores who took this examination thought it was funny to give smart answers. Sophomores can be like that. There are other reasons why the results of this examination may not be a valid measure of the knowledge of the sophomores. But suppose it were? Are the schools solely to blame? Many astounded columnists and radio commentators and editorial writers fulminated for a week over the failure of the modern school.

In asking home and community to play their role we do not seek an alibi. The schools have a responsibility they do not wish to escape. But for scores of the learnings needed for successful living in this modern day the home and community have a shared responsibility. An important next step in the development of the American program of education is to find the place of home and community in that program—to keep home and community constantly at work on that program. We cannot look forward to a decade of meeting attacks on education. We must prevent these attacks. We must break the crystalizing concept of educa-

cation as a service comparable to the laundry, the bakery, and the water supply system, to be condemned for wrinkled shirts, tough pies and an overdose of chlorine. Mistakes and failures in the upbringing of our children are the mistakes of home, school, church, and community. Success is likewise attributable to all of these institutions working together.

An old artillery captain of the War of the 60's once told me how he was compelled to report to his commanding officer the loss of every gun from his battery.

"Sir," he said, as he saluted, "I have to report to you that the enemy has captured all of our guns."

"Did you spike them?" asked the C.O.

"No sir," said the captain again at salute. "We retook them!"

We may have to spend some of our time in the next decade meeting the attacks on education by spiking them. But we shall go farther if home, church, and community reassume the responsibilities each has for the education of our children.

UNDERSTANDING OUR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

LOUIS H. BRAUN

WHAT DENVER SCHOOLS HAVE ENDEAVORED TO DO TO MEET ATTACKS ON EDUCATION

WAS education in Denver really in danger? What did the schools do to meet attacks leveled at them?

In recent months there had been many rumblings of discontent heard throughout the country; rumblings of criticism against public education. They had grown to considerable proportions in Denver by October, 1949.

From time to time prior to October, 1949, there had been individuals or small groups of citizens who had vocally attacked the public schools, but in October, 1949, a concentrated push was launched. This major attack focused around these areas: progressive education, communistic teachings, and neglect of the three R's. These areas are typical of those which have been foremost in other cities throughout the country where attacks have taken place on the public schools.

Denver was one of those cities that during the war grew by leaps and bounds with many new people moving into the area, either for war occupation or because they were families of military personnel stationed at the posts in and around Denver. Many of these people had children who had moved from place to place during their early educational program and were faced with that educational prerogative of a

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democracy which allows individual schools, or systems, to determine to great degree the standards of the educational learning of boys and girls. However, the impetus for the major attack in October, 1949, came about through concerted effort on the part of a minority of Denver citizens who were opposed to progressive education, alleged communistic teachings, and neglect of the three R's. These people, in turn, then, enjoyed considerable following from people who had recently moved to the city and whose children had not necessarily made the best adjustment to the program in Denver.

The pattern of evaluation of the educational program of the Denver Public Schools was much like that which is prevalent in many cities throughout the nation; namely, no centralized evaluation program but each school was allowed a relative degree of individual autonomy in determining the success of the educational program for its community. However, a certain basic philosophy and objectives were determined through the central administration. Therefore, when attacks became apparent and people were extremely vocal about the schools, it was essential that each school be able to justify the program of learning which it was fostering. Needless to say that without such pressure, we as educators are sometimes prone to become smug in our judgment regarding the progress we have made. Faculties expressed their belief that boys and girls were well prepared; however, the public desired more specific and objective evidence of accomplishments. This, too, had been the desire of the Superintendent, Dr. Oberholtzer, when in November, 1949, at a regular meeting of the Board of Education he proposed a two-fold evaluation program comprised of a public opinion survey and a comprehensive evaluation of pupil progress using a battery of standardized tests. It was the considered judgment of the superintendent and the Board of Education that such studies would provide the professional staff and interested citizens of the community representative information concerning public opinion with regard to a general degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the work of the public schools, accomplishments of the pupils in the three R's, and other significant matters.

Also at this time the associate editor of one of the local papers became very interested in the current attacks—both pro and con—which were appearing in the open forum of the local press. He, therefore, consulted the superintendent of schools and asked that he might have an opportunity to visit schools in the city and learn firsthand the educational program that was in progress in Denver. His visits were non-scheduled and comprehensive. He visited classes in elementary, junior, and senior high schools and talked with pupils, teachers, and administrators to gather a personal insight into the educational program of Denver. In light of his visitations he wrote some very straightforward editorials regarding the educational program. These editorials brought to the public an accurate account of classroom activities

which tended to allay misconceptions and develop a basic understanding of the program of the schools.

It was at this time, too, that pamphlets of various types and titles began to appear in Denver. In fact, members of the Board of Education received pamphlets which intimated that progressive education tended to contribute to an increase in juvenile delinquency. Another folder raised the question of how loyal to the principles of democracy were our public school teachers. Then, too, there was the suggestion that the answer to America's educational problem was not to be found in public schools but rather in private institutions. Several members of the Board of Education, as well as parents, received copies of a publication of national circulation which reviewed the successful attacks being conducted on public education throughout the nation. What was the source of this literature? Was it local or national in production?

To answer these questions the publications department of the Denver Public Schools carried on an extensive and thorough investigation of the sources of the aforementioned literature. The result of this survey brought forth much authentic data giving the background of the individuals involved in the production of such literature criticizing the public schools of the country. This information was of great assistance in refuting the criticisms against the public schools. These data were also photostated so that they could be projected onto screens for use by discussion groups among teachers and parents in the city. It was this approach to the exposure of the source of such literature that brought about a greater understanding between the public and the schools of Denver.

In light of these situations involving public education in the Denver community, the Board of Education, on the recommendation of the superintendent, went forward with its plan for the Public Opinion Poll and Test Survey. These activities were completed late in the spring of 1950—too late to be used before the close of school in June. Administrators met during the two weeks prior to the opening of school in 1951 to review the results of the Public Opinion Poll and Test Survey, and to determine the procedure to be used in interpreting the outcomes of these two instruments to the public.

Charts were developed showing pupil expectancy as well as test achievement, and such charts were made available to each school with a plan agreed upon that each principal would use the results in the pre-planning sessions with the faculty, and they in turn would assist in interpreting the results to parent groups during the fall semester. The results would also serve as guides in developing a stronger educational program. The outcomes of these two instruments helped materially in refuting many of the criticisms.

Let us consider for just a moment highlights from the Public Opinion Poll which was divided into two parts: what Denver people think of their schools and public ideas on curriculum. This poll was

conducted with parents, lay citizens who had no children in school, and teachers. A private polling service conducted the survey and a brief view of the results brings out these observations:

WHAT DENVER PEOPLE THINK OF THEIR PUBLIC SCHOOLS

A majority opinion regarded the Denver Public Schools generally favorable but not uncritically so. For example, the minority is concerned with the need for greater emphasis on fundamentals but no one would do away with other subjects which the Denver Public Schools offer.

Opinions regarding schools seem independent of background assumed to be important in determining needs and expectations. For instance, the findings support the interpretation that the school program is not drastically out of balance in meeting the widely differing needs of broad population classes and groups in the heterogeneous Denver population.

Opinions regarding schools generally seem independent of the type and degree of contact people have had with the Denver school system. This may be interpreted to mean that generally it was found that there was very little if any difference in the distribution of favorable or unfavorable opinions among parents and non-parents from our Denver pupils and people educated elsewhere, recent graduates and graduates of earlier Denver schools, or those having a close contact with schools, and those without such contact.

Some general attitudes or expectations concerning education are highly related to people's reactions to the Denver Public Schools. Such relationship is apparent in three general areas of attitudes or experiences found among all types of people: a "tough-minded" or "firm-disciplined" approach to dealing with the younger generation; a conservative attitude of respect for traditional approaches; a feeling that the pupil does not get enough individual attention or personal thoughtfulness from teachers and the school. Thus the population the schools serve is divided in a crucial way on such questions as discipline, traditionalisms, and individual attention for the pupil. Whichever way the schools lean in compromising these demands, they will probably be subject to criticism.

Praise and criticism of the schools covers many areas. To give only a few of these we cite the following: physical plant and equipment—for example, uncrowded classrooms; instruction techniques—including "modern ideas"; training and what has been called social and psychological skills—for example, getting along with people; and teacher qualifications.

Teacher ideas on education do not differ substantially from those of the public. They see value in criticism but feel much of current criticism is invalid. Most teachers feel that there are things to criticize

in the school or that criticism in general is healthy but that much of the public criticism offered is not valid.

UNDER PART TWO OF THE PUBLIC OPINION POLL ENTITLED "PUBLIC ATTITUDES ON CURRICULUM" WE FIND THE FOLLOWING REACTIONS:

Supporters and critics of the schools agree on the visible criteria by which a product of the schools is judged. For example, it was found that the most frequently mentioned criteria for judging education were advance learning skills, such as special conversational ability and expression in writing or talking; social and psychological skills, or talents such as manners, poise, and ability to get along with people; basic English skills such as grammar and spelling; wide interest and knowledge.

When speaking of values of their own educations, people stress broad development of the person as well as training in fundamentals and in a diversity of special fields. Such values mentioned were English language skills, mathematics, vocal training, and so forth, plus the social and psychological learnings such as friends needed in school and social relations.

Public demands on the Denver curriculum are valid. They emphasize training in basic skills, development of a rounded personality, and knowledge in a diversity of fields. Here people stressed broader educational goals, particularly the fostering of character traits and such moral and cultural values as self-reliance and religious ethics; and of such social or psychological skills as poise and ability to deal with people.

At least large minorities consider every division of the Denver curriculum to be among the most important subjects taught in the schools. For example, almost everyone chose the basic skills of English and mathematics as among the most important subjects. The majority chose among "most important" subjects those that are related to jobs, home, health, and citizenship. Finally, large minorities ranging from one-quarter to more than one-third of the population chose the more specialized-interest subjects such as sciences, arts, and language.

Significant majorities feel traditional subjects are neglected but few people are willing to cut down on other subjects. Thus, public wishes for the Denver Public Schools are in one direction, toward more and more training both in old and new fields. Meeting these one-direction demands with the necessary compromises seems to be a major problem for which public opinion offers little guidance.

So it was that the Public Opinion Poll assisted in giving the Board of Education, Superintendent, staff, and citizens of Denver a look at the schools through the eyes of the public it serves.

As mentioned previously, the second prong of this dual approach to the subject "Denver Looks at Its Schools" was the Testing Survey. Under this phase of the evaluation of the schools a very comprehensive

testing program of city-wide nature was conducted with the basic premise that the results were not to be used for comparing school with school or teacher with teacher but solely for determining the status quo of the boys and girls of Denver with regard to the educational program in testable areas where national norms were available.

It also was the feeling of the administration and the teachers that this testing program did not necessarily cover all areas stressed in a well-rounded educational program but it at least was a step in evaluating the particular fields where criticism has been most vocal. A careful analysis of the results did provide tangible evidence of accomplishment on a city-wide basis. The effects of any educational program are accumulative. The state of a pupil's development at any time is a result of all previous experiences. For this reason, the best indication of success or failure of the Denver twelve-year program is the performance of the twelfth grade pupils.

Tests in mental health and personality were used as well as batteries in academic subject areas. It was found that the mental health of our Denver school children is extremely high and that an excellent home and school relationship seems to be apparent which has brought about this status. In the academic subject fields the performance in natural science, general vocabulary, and the use of sources of information is superior. This can be taken to mean that instruction in these areas was of high caliber and needed to be maintained at the present level of effectiveness. Performance on the reading tests, while not as high, were still distinctly above reasonable expectancy. Performance in correctness in writing is about average. Performance in quantitative thinking is somewhat below reasonable expectancy as is the development of basic concepts in the social sciences.

In concluding an analysis of the Testing Survey phase of this evaluation, it should be stressed again that the strengths determined by such a program were the strengths of the total twelve-year Denver program of instruction. The weaknesses are weaknesses of the Denver program and the improvement as it comes will be the result of the efforts of all Denver teachers from kindergarten through grade 12.

As indicated previously, the results of the Public Opinion Poll and Test Survey were reviewed by principals in the fall of 1950 prior to the opening of school. Copies of the opinion poll along with charts and profiles of the test results were sent to each school for use with faculty, parent, and community groups. Individual schools used the results to inform their communities of the educational program in a frank, straightforward way recognizing strengths and weaknesses alike. It was this sincerity and willingness to give the public the true picture that won many friends and developed a public confidence which assisted in refuting the criticisms leveled at public education.

A more positive program of public relations seemed desirable. As one phase of such a program area committees of principals from all

SCHOOL COMMUNITY DAY

TUE. MARCH 18, 1952

TWO CO-CHAIRMEN

GENERAL SECRETARY

GENERAL PLANNING COMMITTEE

FROM LEADS FOUR
TWO S.I.S.
TWO S.T.L.FROM BUSINESS AND
INDUSTRY FOURSENIOR AND P.T.A.
PRESIDENTS FIVE
PRESIDENTS SIXVIRGIL AND
PRINCIPALS FIVECOMMUNITY AT LARGE
FOURSUPERINTENDENT'S
STAFF FOUR
BUSINESS AND
INDUSTRY FIVEARTICULATION BOARD
MEN FIVE

FIVE DISTRICT COMMITTEES

EAST

SP HIGH P.T.A. PRES. CHAIRMAN
SP HIGH PRINCIPAL CO-CHAIRMANRELATIONSHIP TEACHERS
AND STUDENTS
WITHIN THE DISTRICT
SCHOOL IN THE DISTRICT1. DISTRICT P.T.A. PRESIDENTS
2. SP HIGH PRINCIPALS
3. SP HIGH PRINCIPALS
4. FROM LEADS AND INDUSTRY
5. FROM COMMUNITY AT LARGE
6. SUPERINTENDENT

NORTH

SP HIGH P.T.A. PRES. CHAIRMAN
SP HIGH PRINCIPAL CO-CHAIRMANRELATIONSHIP TEACHERS
AND STUDENTS
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3. SP HIGH PRINCIPALS
4. FROM LEADS AND INDUSTRY
5. FROM COMMUNITY AT LARGE
6. SUPERINTENDENT

SOUTH

SP HIGH P.T.A. PRES. CHAIRMAN
SP HIGH PRINCIPAL CO-CHAIRMANRELATIONSHIP TEACHERS
AND STUDENTS
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4. FROM LEADS AND INDUSTRY
5. FROM COMMUNITY AT LARGE
6. SUPERINTENDENT

WEST

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SP HIGH PRINCIPAL CO-CHAIRMANRELATIONSHIP TEACHERS
AND STUDENTS
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3. SP HIGH PRINCIPALS
4. FROM LEADS AND INDUSTRY
5. FROM COMMUNITY AT LARGE
6. SUPERINTENDENT

MANUAL

SP HIGH P.T.A. PRES. CHAIRMAN
SP HIGH PRINCIPAL CO-CHAIRMANRELATIONSHIP TEACHERS
AND STUDENTS
WITHIN THE DISTRICT
SCHOOL IN THE DISTRICT1. DISTRICT P.T.A. PRESIDENTS
2. SP HIGH PRINCIPALS
3. SP HIGH PRINCIPALS
4. FROM LEADS AND INDUSTRY
5. FROM COMMUNITY AT LARGE
6. SUPERINTENDENTEXAMPLES OF DUTIES
DISTRICT COMMITTEES

1. TRANSPORTATION
2. INVITATION LETTERS
3. INVITATION CARDS
4. COMPLETION OF REQUEST FOR S.I.S. AND S.T.L.
5. THE DEVELOPMENT OF A POSITION PROGRAM THAT
WILL BE SET UP AT THE DISTRICT
PLANNING COMMITTEE
6. REMINDER FOR INVITATION OF SCHOOL COMMUNITY
7. SET
8. SET
9. SET
10. SET

levels—elementary, junior, and senior high—were organized to assist in bringing about a clearer understanding of the purposes of education in Denver. An exchange of ideas to bring about public comprehension of the purposes of the educational program evolved from such meetings.

Articulation between levels is bringing about a greater clarity of the interdependency necessary for a successful K-12 program of education. New guides are being developed with the total program in mind. An interchange of classroom technics is being contemplated to assist the total corps in meeting the needs of boys and girls.

A Parents' Advisory Council consisting of representatives from local Parent Teacher Associations has been organized to determine ways of bringing about a greater understanding between the schools and the community. Two major projects have evolved from initial meetings of this council: "Back to School Nights," and "School Community Day."

The first idea is not new; however, many interesting versions evolved through an interchange of ideas. The basic purpose of such a night should be to learn more about the instruction program, teaching methods, textbooks, and teaching personnel. Emphasis should be on the individual child. Such questions as, What are class objectives? What is the class outline? What technics of evaluation are used to determine pupil progress? should be answered in a visitation program of such a nature. Elementary schools may wish to follow a plan of having parents follow the regular program of their child while the secondary school may decide to organize around areas of interest—counseling, departmental, or social activities. Or perhaps half-grade meetings may more adequately acquaint the parents with the schools and its program.

The "School Community Day" is organized to acquaint the entire public, parent and non-parent, with the program of the schools. The graphic illustration incorporated in this report gives some idea of the organizational technic proposed for such an activity. In each proposal from the advisory council the main purpose is to acquaint the public with the schools of Denver.

So it is that Denver has thus far been successful in meeting the attacks on the public schools. Its success is due in part to these things:

1. A willingness to look at the schools of Denver; evaluate the status quo, recognizing strengths and weaknesses.
2. A willingness to report the results frankly and honestly to the public the schools serve.
3. A sincere effort to make needed improvements while at the same time endeavoring to maintain the high standards achieved in other areas.
4. A greater understanding on the part of administrators, faculties, and the public of the purposes of education and the means by which such goals are achieved.

5. A concerted effort to bring about a continuous evaluation of the social, emotional, and mental growth of boys and girls.
6. A continuous constructive public relations program realizing that an informed, intelligent public is the foundation for a successful, co-operative public educational program.

HOW TO PREVENT ATTACKS ON THE SCHOOLS

HAROLD C. HAND

THE experience of the race has taught us that an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. This bit of folk wisdom bears with great pertinence on the public relations problem of the schools.

This is especially true at the present time. We live in an anxious age in which a great many people subconsciously crave a scapegoat on which to vent the spleen generated by their inner tensions. The public school is an almost irresistibly attractive object of aggression; it is everywhere conveniently at hand, and usually it can irresponsibly be attacked without danger of hurtful reprisal. The situation is thus made to order for those among the manipulators of public opinion who stand to gain from the emasculation or destruction of the public schools. Little wonder, then, that they are so busily capitalizing upon their opportunity. And continue to capitalize they will until we analyze why it is that the school can irresponsibly, even libelously, be attacked without danger of hurtful reprisal. I have attempted to make such an analysis. My analysis points to four things which can be done which would either prevent irresponsible attacks from being made in the first place, or render them innocuous if they do occur.

I must at the very outset make clear what I mean by "hurtful reprisal." I do not mean either legal reprisal or any form of physical punishment. Instead, I mean the acute discomfort which one experiences when he either makes himself appear ridiculous in the eyes of the public or outrages public opinion. If the situation could be so arranged that the perpetrator of an irresponsible attack on the school would appear ridiculous, it is obvious that it would be he and not the school which would suffer. And if the situation could be made such that public opinion would quite certainly be outraged by such attacks, it is obvious that they would seldom or never occur.

As the record only too clearly proves, neither of these two necessary conditions now obtains. Irresponsible and/or malicious critics of the schools can and do make charges which range from the absurd to the preposterous without appearing at all ridiculous to the generality of the citizens, and without incurring their wrath in the slightest. To

Harold C. Hand is Professor of Education in the College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

the contrary, these irresponsible and/or malicious critics are rather commonly regarded as people who should be listened to, and viewed as friends rather than as enemies of the public. How to make the directly contrary psychology apply is the problem we must resolve if unfounded criticisms of the schools are to be prevented from occurring, or rendered harmless if they do occur.

As I have previously suggested, there are four principal ways in which this can be done—as, to a greater or a lesser degree, some schools have already demonstrated. I shall now deal in turn with each of these four ways of reversing the psychology which is currently so favorable to the ignorant and/or unprincipled critics.

OPINION SURVEY

One of the principal and most successful strategies of the malicious critics is that of hoodwinking the community into believing that there is a great deal of public dissatisfaction with the schools, and that this widespread dissatisfaction is especially acute in regard to whatever it is about the schools that the perpetrator of the attack wishes either to reverse, emasculate; or destroy. This hoodwinking is almost ridiculously easy to accomplish; a barrage of twenty or thirty inspired letters to the editor carefully spaced over a period of a few weeks, plus a public speech or two by some impressively titled dignitary imported from the outside, are about all that it takes to persuade the generality of the public that there really must be a great deal of widespread dissatisfaction with the schools of the community. Or the same impression can be created by a clever columnist who keeps harping on the theme that the schools have gone to pot.

How all this conditions the outlook of the citizens of the community is, I think, rather neatly reflected in a conversation which I had with a professional man in a city of about 70,000 not so very long ago. In this city the public schools had been attacked in a spate of letters to the editor and in one or two public meetings. In the course of the conversation, this professional man observed that the public schools of the community were pretty poor and that they were messed up by a lot of wild-eyed progressive education ideas. In response to my questions he said that he had one child attending the elementary and another enrolled in junior high school, that both of these youngsters liked their schools and seemed to be getting along all right, and that he personally had no complaints. When I asked why, in spite of his own personal experience to the contrary, he believed that the schools were poor and wild-eyed, he said that there must be a great deal wrong with them when so many people were complaining about them in the newspapers and calling public meetings to protest what they were doing. Unknown to this man until later in our conversation, I was on the staff of a survey committee that had been employed to make an outside audit of the public schools of his city. Our analysis of the situation revealed

three things: that the schools were in general doing an excellent job, that a very substantial majority of a strictly cross section sample of the citizens approved of the school's philosophy and practices, and that nearly all of the hullabaloo had been stirred up by one person—a man with no children of school age who had but recently come to the community.

Now, let us ask, how can the "ounce of prevention" be applied to make such irresponsible critics appear ridiculous in the eyes of the community? A good illustration is at hand in Bloomington, Illinois, a city of about 35,000. This is the latest among the several cities of which I have personal knowledge in which the situation is now such that anyone who says that the people of the community are generally dissatisfied with the public schools will be recognized either as an ignoramus or as a liar by the people of the community.

Every set of parents in Bloomington was invited anonymously to tell what they thought about their public schools; whether "in general" they were satisfied or dissatisfied, and how they felt about some 25 or 30 specifics—how much their children were getting out of their schoolwork, how much of real life value the curriculum contained, what they thought about the schools' teaching methods, how they felt about its discipline, what things they thought the schools should do more about, *etc.* This survey was conducted by the Citizens Advisory Council and was jointly sponsored by the Council and the Board of Education. As pledged in advance, the findings have been published¹ and widely publicized throughout the city.

Consequently, the community knows that only 4 per cent of the parents said that they were "in general" definitely dissatisfied with the public schools, that 85 per cent think that their youngsters are getting all or nearly all out of their schoolwork that it is reasonable to expect; that 86 per cent said that most or practically everything that the schools are teaching would be of use to their children in everyday living; that only 5 per cent reported themselves as being definitely dissatisfied with the teaching methods employed; that about 70 per cent said that the discipline was about right; and that 12 per cent were apparently not enough interested in this question to give any reply; that the five things which the parents principally wanted the schools to do more about were to teach pupils how to get along with people (60%), more study of how to use money wisely (58%), better speech (48%), more child study by teachers (47%), and problems of family living (38%). The people of the community also know "how many parents said what" in response to all the other specific questions which were asked, but limitations of space preclude the giving of other illustrations here. No spate of inspired letters to the editor or speech would now be able to hoodwink the people of Bloomington, for they have made their count and they know what the score is in their city.

¹Citizens Advisory Council. *What the People of Bloomington, Illinois, Think About Their Public Schools.* (Printed). Board of Education, Bloomington, Illinois. 1952.

Applying the technique of opinion polling *before the attacks occur* is, then, one of the four ways in which the guns of the enemy can be spiked. I have yet to hear of the community in which any of the national school wrecking organizations² have attempted to operate *after* such a poll has been conducted and its findings made public. Nor do I know of any city in which, after its local survey results have been reported, any irresponsible local critic has attempted to persuade the community that there is widespread public dissatisfaction with the schools.

Something that took place in another Illinois city in which the same public opinion survey³ was conducted two years earlier leads me to believe that the application of this particular technique is probably a curative as well as a preventative. In this city a newspaper columnist had been deriding and villifying the public schools for a considerable period of time before the parents were systematically and anonymously surveyed. When the survey results were made public it was possible for everybody to know that only 7 per cent of the parents had said that "in general" they were definitely dissatisfied with their children's schools. This shattered the impression which the acid pen of this columnist had created and he immediately fell silent on the subject. Later, I am told, his column began to include comments favorable to the schools. Apparently he felt more comfortable in identifying himself with the overwhelming majority of satisfied parents rather than with the tiny dissatisfied minority.

THEN VERSUS NOW

So much, then, for this seemingly sure-fire way of making any critic look silly who trumpets any unfounded charge in regard to what the generality of the citizens are thinking or saying about the public schools. We turn now to the question of how to spike the guns of those of our enemies who either knowingly or unwittingly lie in regard to the facts of the schools' accomplishments.

We are all aware of the incendiary character of these charges; we all know how easy it is to make the parents "burn" by telling them that the schools have seriously deteriorated in regard to teaching the 3 R's, history, geography, *etc.* If anything is obvious, it is that we badly need "fire insurance" in this regard. If this "fire insurance" is to be adequate, it must include "coverages" of two types. One relates to methods of teaching; the experimental evidence pertaining to the demonstrated superiority of the new over the old ways of teaching. The second type of coverage required is that of the "then versus now" variety; the facts of the tested accomplishments of the pupils "then" compared with the facts of the tested accomplishments of today's pupils. Let us look at these two requirements in turn.

²For a list of these organizations see Anderson, A. W., "The Cloak of Respectability: The Attackers and Their Methods," *Progressive Education*, January, 1952.

³For the necessary directions and survey materials see Hand, H. C., *What People Think About Their Schools*, World Book Company. 1948.

Obviously, if the parents have a clear understanding of the factually demonstrated superiority of the new over the old methods of teaching; *i.e.*, if they have actually had this factual evidence summarized for them, put into their hands, and clearly explained, they are almost certain to resist rather than to applaud the critic who would have them pressure the school to turn back the clock. As matters now stand, the parents are not supplied with these facts; instead, they are asked to take the new teaching methods on faith. When the attack comes, as it almost everywhere is coming, this unsubstantiated faith too frequently crumbles.

The foregoing remarks make clear the kind of "fire insurance" needed for this particular coverage. What is needed is a clearly and simply written report directed to Mr. and Mrs. John Q. Citizen which gives the facts which show the demonstrated superiority of the new methods over the old. Materials which Professor Anderson and Professor Gray have prepared⁴ indicate most of the sources which should be consulted in preparing local publications of this description.

To be most helpful, the second kind of needed "fire insurance" must be local in character; *i.e.*, it must demonstrate that the pupils in *our* school are learning more today than were the youngsters who were attending *our* school say 10, or 20, or 30 years ago. Accordingly, we should all scrutinize our school records for the necessary base line data. If we are fortunate enough to find such data, we should of course conduct the comparative studies which they make possible. To make such comparative studies fair to the more heterogeneous school of today, we must have comparative age, grade level, I.Q., *etc.*, data and equate our comparison groups accordingly.

If you are one of the fortunate few whose school records afford the base line data for one or more such comparative studies, you owe it not only to your pupils but to your fellow principals to conduct the study or studies thus made possible. This is true because "then *vs.* now" data from other cities, though much less potent than hometown facts would be, do carry more than a little weight in the local community.

This last observation suggests that we would all do well to prepare local publications which bring together the available facts about the performance of the schools then and now. Most of the source materials needed for the preparation of such local publications will be found in the article by Professor Anderson cited above.

CLOAK OF RESPECTABILITY

This brings us to our consideration of a third way in which unjustified attacks on the schools can be prevented. This particular species of prophylaxis pertains to unjustified attacks which are in-

⁴Anderson, A. W., "The Charges Against American Education: What is the Evidence?", *Progressive Education*, January, 1952, and Gray, William S., "What is the Evidence Concerning Reading?", *Progressive Education*, January, 1952.

spired or stimulated by national organizations. Far too many of us know much too little about these professional school-wrecking outfits; their names, their specific purposes, their strategies, and their publications. Consequently, too few of us are able to relay to the people of our communities the facts which would keep them from becoming the hoodwinked tools of these professional school wreckers. What every school leader needs to know in this regard is outlined in a heavily documented article by Professor Anderson.⁵ He also cites the various free or inexpensive printed materials which the NEA Defense Commission has had a hand in preparing; brief and easy to read publications which give the facts which one must know in order to inoculate himself and his patrons against the peripatetic professional school wreckers and thus prevent these worthies from gaining a foothold in the community.

NEW SCHOOL BUILDING LESSON

We come now to the fourth way in which unjustified attacks on the schools can be prevented. Potentially, this is by long odds the most effective of all the possible methods which might be employed. It is also by long odds the most difficult and time consuming, but, fortunately, one in regard to which our better schools have already made a very good beginning.

The essence of this most certain of all possible methods of preventing unjustified attacks on the schools from occurring I can best suggest by inviting your attention to what I shall call "the new school building lesson." What, then, is "the new school building lesson" which we should heed?

Practically none of the unjustified attacks on education is ever focussed on a new school building which has been erected in the community. Instead, these attacks are almost exclusively centered on new teaching methods or new programs of instruction. Let us see why this is so. When we do, we shall note that two quite different psychologies obtain; one which makes it almost completely impossible for an unjustified attack to occur; a second which not only makes such attacks easily possible but which also almost makes them inevitable.

When a new school building is finally completed in the typical community, the parents and other citizens glow with pride. They brag about it and make a point of taking visitors to see it. They expect to have it applauded in the press and to see pictures of it prominently included in Chamber of Commerce publications. The new school building is psychologically theirs; they were carefully presented with the pro's and con's of the need for such a structure and each was almost fervently urged to go to the polls to register his judgment as to the desirability of the proposed enterprise. Once the decision to replace the old

⁵Anderson, A. W., "The Cloak of Respectability: The Attackers and Their Methods," *Progressive Education*, January, 1952.

structure had thus been made by the community (not by the teachers), representative fellow citizens directly responsible to them had actively participated in deciding what the new building was to be like and why, what was to go into it and why, how its grounds were to be landscaped and why, and all the rest. The citizens had been kept informed of these decisions as this planning by their representatives progressed. When the new building was completed and opened for public inspection, the citizens knew about what to expect, and what they expected not only was there but it made sense to them. They are confident that the new building will make possible great benefits to the pupils and to the community which had formerly been impossible because of the inadequacies of the old school building. All in all, as I have noted above, the new structure is psychologically theirs and they are proud of it.

It is instructive to note what would happen, and why, if some irresponsible critic were to launch an unfounded attack on this new school building—if, for example, he were to trumpet the charge that the old 1920 building was considerably better for the pupils than the new one is, and that the parents should rise up and demand that their children be returned to the old structure. Two things would immediately happen. One, the citizens, having been a party to the prior weighing of the pro's and con's regarding the need for the new building and its modern facilities, would immediately recognize the utter absurdity of the allegation and reject the proposed action as preposterous. Secondly, since the decision to build the new building had been their decision, *i.e.*, since the new edifice was psychologically theirs, they would immediately resent and resist the attacker because they would feel that they, and not just the school building, were being attacked. They would at once see it as their battle; and they would act accordingly. All in all, the attacker would have an extremely unpleasant time of it, a lesson that would not be lost on other people who might be tempted to take out their aggressions by launching unfounded attacks on the new school building.

The point that I am trying to make is that we have already so arranged the situation that a new school building cannot irresponsibly be attacked without danger of reprisal. To the contrary, the situation is nearly everywhere such that reprisal would not only be both prompt and effective—it would be just. The consequence is that absurd attacks on new school buildings are seldom made, and the very few that are perpetrated get nowhere. I have yet to hear of a single community in which any body of parents has put pressure on the Board of Education to return their children to the 1900, the 1910, or the 1920 model building. Nor do I know of a single promoter who has set up an organization with a fancy name for purposes of grinding out half truths and deliberate falsehoods about new school buildings with which to enable local critics to inflame the public. Neither glory nor profit is to be had from such an enterprise, so none such exist. I do, however, have personal

knowledge of more than a few communities in which parents are pressuring the Board of Education to return their children to the curriculum and teaching methods of 1920 or earlier. And I also know of certain people who have set up profitable organizations with fancy names which grind out inflammatory half-truths and deliberate falsehoods in regard to new programs of instruction and new methods of teaching.

Perhaps it would be worth our while to contrast the quite different ways in which new school buildings and new instructional programs are typically produced. The principal differences are striking.

As we have already noted, the decision as to whether or not a new school building is needed in the first place is decided on the broadest possible basis by the citizens of the community themselves. Thus, in no sense or degree is the decision as to the need for a new building a monopoly of the teaching profession. Except in our very best and most expertly administered schools, however, the decision as to whether a new program of instruction is needed is almost completely monopolized by the professionals; the patrons too seldom have any share in it.

We have also observed that laymen directly responsible to the citizens of the community do the major part of the planning in regard to the kind of a new school building which is to be erected. These Board members keep the public aware of the character of these plans as the design for the building and its facilities and grounds take shape. Attractive sketches of "how it is going to look" are prepared and publicized; not infrequently the Chamber of Commerce will include these sketches in the publicity materials through which it portrays the glories of the community. In regard to planning the design for the new instructional program, however, the typical "picture" is quite different. Again it is only in our most expertly administered schools that the patrons are involved in the actual shaping of the new design. Much too commonly the patrons are involved *after* this decision has been made rather than *during the time* that it is being threshed out. The decision is too often *announced to* rather than *shared by* the patrons.

Back to the new school building situation again: In consequence of their participation in the decision making, and the fact that energetic efforts are made to keep them aware of the way in which the project is progressing, it is completely impossible for the generality of the citizens to wake up some fine morning and find themselves saddled with a new and very different-looking school building which most of them hadn't even known was "in the works." As we have noted, not only are the citizens very generally aware that the new building is being erected; they also know what it is going to look like, and why it will look that way. Thus practically no one feels that something has been "slipped over on him" when he makes his first inspection of the new structure, or hears his children tell about it, or reads about it in his newspaper.

This is much too typically *not* the case when the patrons first hear their children tell about the new instructional program or the new method of teaching, or when they read about these in the newspaper. Too frequently, by virtue of the teachers' monopoly, they neither knew what was coming and why, nor what it would look like and why. Not illogically, and this regardless of the entirely honorable intention of the teachers and the genuine worth of the new program, the patrons have the uncomfortable feeling that maybe somebody has slipped something over on them.

These doubts may not, and usually do not, amount to very much at the time. But as they pile up over the years they constitute a sort of a psychological explosives dump which some clever person can easily "trigger" when it suits his purposes to do so. This "triggering" is now going on all over the country and attacks on education give promise of becoming the rule rather than the exception as heretofore. And when these attacks occur they are seen by the public as being onslaughts on the teaching profession, and not as attacks on the citizens of the community. Consequently, the citizens nearly everywhere feel no personal involvement and quite understandably leave it exclusively to the teaching profession to do the resenting and the resisting of the attacks.

The contrast between this and the "new school building situation" noted above should be instructive. In regard to the latter, there is no monopoly by the teaching profession. The result is that we have a permanently closed season in regard to the taking of pot shots at new school buildings. In respect to new instructional programs, however, we characteristically have what comes very close to being a monopoly by the teaching profession. As we have noted, this in effect makes these new programs sitting ducks on which there is neither a closed season nor any bag limit. Little wonder, then, that noisy pot shots are almost everywhere to be heard in the land.

As I have tried to make clear, my thesis is that these pot shots at new instructional programs and new methods of teaching will continue to spray the teaching profession with hot lead until we successfully apply what I have awkwardly called the "lesson of the new school building." The \$64 question, then, is *how* can we apply this lesson? Procedures and practical use materials designed for this very purpose have been developed in Illinois under the auspices of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, or as we know it, the ISSCP.

LOCAL AREA CONSENSUS STUDIES

These procedures and use materials are embodied in what we call the Local Area Consensus Studies. The design for these local action studies was approved in October, 1949, by the ISSCP Steering Committee, a state-wide body representing agriculture, business, industry, labor, the organized parents, and the teaching profession. This design stipulated that there were to be over 20 such local action projects, one

for every subject (English, science, art, *etc.*) and service (guidance, health, library, *etc.*) area included in the secondary-school program. The work of preparing and pre-testing the practical materials needed for these local action studies was begun in November, 1949, and will be continued until they are completed. The materials for six of these studies (extra-class activities, family living, guidance, health education, library services, science) are now completed and available without cost to any Illinois school that wants to apply "the lesson of the new school building" to these aspects of its program. The instruments for the English, mathematics, music, and safety education studies will be ready for the field by late summer or early fall of 1952. Those for the remainder of the subject and service areas we hope to have ready by or before the opening of the 1953-54 school year. Each study, incidentally, requires about a year and a half for its preparation.

These local action studies enable the principal and his staff to apply "the lesson of the new school building" to the curriculum. All the teachers in the school, several representative pupils, and a panel of representative patrons equal in size to the combined teacher and pupil group, are involved in each study. Through the use of carefully prepared and pre-tested inventories which are supplied by the ISSCP Director, this aggregate of patrons, teachers, and pupils do the following things together: (1) They decide together what the purposes of the subject or service area should be in their school—*i.e.*, they decide together what benefits each should afford the pupils and the community; (2) they decide together which of these purposes their school is, and which it is not, achieving adequately at the present time; (3) they decide together what specific aspects of the program should be improved; and (4) they emerge with an agreed-upon concrete plan for bringing about each of these desired improvements in their school.⁶

Let us suppose that a given school utilizes all of the Local Area Consensus Studies over, say, a five-year period or longer. Let us also suppose that this school wisely decides to give the widest possible publicity to each aspect of each of these studies. It would therefore proceed to make known to the public the patron-teacher-pupil consensus in regard to the benefits which each subject and service area should be made to afford, the agreed-upon strengths and weaknesses of each, and the essentials of the new or improved program. This widespread and continuing publicity would have four desirable consequences: First, the generality of the citizens would have a reasonably good understanding of the benefits to the pupils and to the community which are potential in each of the school's subject and service areas. Second, they would know the approximate extent to which each of the school's subject and service areas is currently either succeeding or failing to

⁶For a more detailed description of these studies, see Hand, H. C., *Prospectus of the Local Area Consensus Studies*, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois, 1951.

measure up to its potentialities in this regard. Third, they would have a reasonably good understanding of whatever in the way of a new or an improved program is needed in order to enable the school to deliver its maximum benefits. And fourth, few if any of the citizens would feel that something strange or freakish is being "put over on them"; to the contrary, they would know what this new or improved program is going to look like, and why, long before it is put into operation.

Let us further suppose that this school wisely rotates the personnel of its patron panel from study to study, thus ultimately bringing a very sizeable number of parents and other patrons into direct and active participation in deciding what the purposes of the school are to be, in evaluating its present performance, and in planning what is to be done to make it as beneficial as possible to the pupils and to the community. Coupled with the continuing publicity noted above, this widespread participation on the part of the patrons can scarcely fail to make the citizens feel that the program of the school is in truth their program.

When these things have all been done, we will have applied "the lesson of the new school building." No irresponsible or malicious critic could then make an unfounded attack on any aspect of the school's program, or urge any absurd turning back of the clock, without immediately appearing ridiculous in the eyes of the community. Nor could he make such an attack without incurring the resentment if not the wrath of the citizens, for they would feel that the unfair attack on their program was no less than an attack on them. In short, the irresponsible or malicious perpetrator of an unfounded attack on the schools would then be regarded either as an ignoramus, a liar, or a heel—a consummation devoutly to be desired.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS RECORDS ON CONTEMPORARY POETS

Five new albums of recorded poetry read by the poets themselves have been issued by the Library of Congress. These albums, which contain a total of 25 double-face, 12-inch, unbreakable vinylite records recorded at 78 R.P.M., comprise the second-series of five albums issued by the Library under the title *Twentieth Century Poetry in English*. The albums were prepared under the direction of a distinguished group of editors, including the Library's successive consultants in poetry and their advisory board—the Fellows of the Library of Congress in American Letters—composed of well-known writers and critics. A leaflet containing the texts of the poems, biographical notes about the author, and a bibliography is provided with each record. A catalog, entitled *Twentieth Century Poetry in English*, lists all the records available and contains blanks for ordering them. It may be obtained by sending five cents in coin to the Recording Laboratory, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

Annual Banquet

Saturday, February 16, 7:00 P.M., Hall of Mirrors

Theme: BETTER CITIZENS THROUGH BETTER SCHOOLS.

Presiding: Joseph B. Chaplin, Principal, Bangor Senior High School, Bangor, Maine; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Toastmaster: Francis L. Bacon, Professor of Education, University of California, Los Angeles, California.

Invocation by The Rev. Harry K. Eversull, First Presbyterian Church on Walnut Hills, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Music by the Western Hills High School String Orchestra, Cincinnati, Ohio; enrollment, 2,450; Andrew Brady, Conductor; Rayburn W. Cadwallader, Principal; and the Walnut Hills High School Boys' Octette, Cincinnati, Ohio; enrollment, 1,650; Nell Custer Murphy, Vocal Music Director; L. P. Stewart, Principal.

Greetings from England:

NE of our guests, J. Roger Carter, Education Officer of the British Embassy, Washington, D. C., gave a brief greeting from the headmasters of England and read a letter of greeting from Miss Lillian E. Charlesworth, Chairman of the Joint Executive Committee of the four Secondary School Associations in England, 29 Gordon Square, London, W. C. 1. The letter follows:

I am very happy to send a warm greeting to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Although our problems are in some ways so different, my two visits to the United States have convinced me that the fundamental issues which all of us who are responsible for the education of growing boys and girls have to face are in essence very similar. We have in our charge not only the future citizens of their respective countries but also, in a sense which is far more real than ever before, the future citizens of the world. We have not only to maintain high standards of teaching so that boys and girls are equipped with the knowledge and skills which they will need in order to hold their own in the community and to serve it, but also to develop all sides of the personality—physically, aesthetically, and morally—so that they may profit to the uttermost from what life can offer and—far more important—make the fullest contribution possible to the life of their school, their college, and their city. If we are successful in this, we shall be working for a better understanding among people throughout the world.

We have a real battle to wage here, for it is our task to convince our pupils of the value of learning in the face of the many distractions which modern life provides, and to maintain high moral standards when these are not always recognized in the outside world. Education sometimes runs the

risk of being considered as a poor relation among the social services and particularly now is there the risk of its needs being neglected because of the urgent pressure of other claims in the present world situation. Yet our profession is perhaps the most rewarding, for we are always dealing with the freshness and vitality of youth and have the enduring satisfaction of seeing our pupils go forward into the world equipped for the tasks they have to face.

The closer contact between us and our colleagues in other countries, and perhaps especially in the United States, affords us the very greatest satisfaction, for we believe it to be a source of strength to the great cause we serve. May the National Association of Secondary-School Principals continue to flourish and see before long the realization of its highest ideals.

Addresses:

EDUCATION FOR AMERICA'S ROLE IN TODAY'S WORLD

WALTER H. JUDD

IT is apparent to every thoughtful person today that we are living in one of the great transition periods of history. The world is groping its way through a sort of twilight zone between the end, or the approaching end, of one great era of man's existence on this planet and the beginning of another. What kind of era the new one is to be depends more than anything else on which way the United States goes in its domestic affairs, and what kind of role it plays in its world relations in the crucial years just ahead. Which way the United States goes depends on the kind and quality of the education it gives its people in intelligent citizenship.

Before any of us are teachers, or businessmen, or farmers, we are citizens. We are trustees of a great and noble heritage of freedom—trustees of a political and economic and social order which has permitted even those of us who came from humblest circumstances to get the expensive education which we could never have dreamed of obtaining in most other countries of the world. To the extent that we are failing, it is not in our role as scholars or as professional men and women, but in our role as citizens and trustees. Let us begin by asking ourselves what are the forces menacing our free society and what are some of the conditions necessary for its preservation and its further improvement.

1

The most obvious threat is from the outside. The whole world at the middle of the twentieth century is characterized by as much confusion and conflict as in any period of human history. I think it

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is accurate to say that this is the first time in man's existence on this planet when all cultures and civilizations, all countries and peoples have been in turmoil at the same time. The turmoil is increasingly fanned and the conflict inflamed by an organized world-wide conspiracy directed from the Kremlin which is resolutely determined to confuse and then enslave every free man and free woman.

The noble plans and the high ideals and purposes with which we ended World War II lie in ruins. Worst of all, in much of the world, including our America, there is wide-spread defeatism, even despair. Millions have resigned themselves to the inevitability of still another world war. They know full well what it will do to our society yet they see no other alternative except enslavement, and that they will not accept.

Why have we fallen, within six years, from our all-time high of security and influence in the world to our present all-time low? One major cause has been the skill with which the Communist world conspiracy has pursued its never changing purpose to destroy, from within or without, every free society. An equally important cause has been our own failure to recognize the nature of that conspiracy, its objectives and its methods, and to govern ourselves accordingly.

And why were those dedicated to our destruction able to gain control of one third of the earth's population before most people began to wake up? The biggest reason was just plain ignorance on our part—ignorance of other peoples and their history and aspirations; ignorance and wishful thinking regarding the strong forces relentlessly at work against our type of society; ignorance and apathy regarding those agents of the enemy who so successfully infiltrated or influenced key organs of our government, certain high literacy and educational circles, and opinion-forming agencies; and even ignorance of the true nature and the sources of strength within our own culture.

In the past, most Americans quite understandably concentrated their attention on our domestic affairs. Our life, our social organization, and our education were based on the bland assumption that our society would always be stable and secure, and with steadily rising standards of living. Now, suddenly, we see much of the world in retreat, moving at an alarming rate back towards the jungle sort of world from which our fathers struggled so long and hard to emerge.

We are beginning vaguely to realize that our extraordinary domestic achievements in the last three centuries will stand or fall on how well we handle our relations with the rest of the world. And we are not well equipped for the task. Therefore, it is clear that if we are to survive in this kind of world, we must have better education in the whole field of international relations. We must have broader knowledge and deeper understanding of what it is that is happening in the world, especially in Europe, Asia, and Africa, and the significance of those events for us in the United States.

For 500 years, Great Britain's ablest youth were challenged to become specialists in foreign affairs. They knew their country was an island and that no matter how well they managed their internal affairs, the island could not maintain its economy or its independence without the most skillful handling of its political and economic relations with the rest of the world. For centuries, almost every important leader in Britain had served an apprenticeship as a consul in Africa or a magistrate in Hong Kong or with the East India Company or some other of England's far-flung enterprises.

Our fathers, however, had two wide oceans to protect them. Their most pressing task was to solve the problems presented by a vast virgin continent with great distances to be conquered and resources to be developed. So, our American youth were mainly challenged to become engineers, scientists, industrialists, domestic pioneers. They didn't need to bother much about the rest of the world.

Now we are belatedly recognizing that we too are just an island. Conceivably, we could solve all of our internal problems—health, housing, old-age security, labor-management relations, conservation of our soil, and the many others about which we are properly concerned; but if we don't manage our external relations better in the future than in the last few decades, and blunder into too frequent or exhausting wars, or have to bleed ourselves white in too prolonged mobilization for defense, then none of our domestic achievements will long endure.

Heretofore, our main effort in training our youth has been, first, to equip them to make a living—and that is good, no one is worth much to himself or to society who cannot make an honest living at useful work. Second, to help our youth become normal, healthy, well-rounded, and socially well-adjusted human beings in a relatively stable and constantly improving society. But it is plain to all who will see, that the kind of secure, orderly world for which that education was designed is ceasing to exist and another quite different world is coming into being. We are tragically unprepared for that new world.

We studied the history of Europe only to learn something about its past, seldom in terms of trying to understand its peoples and cultures so that we might be able to deal with them wisely in the present and in the future. I confess that it never occurred to me in my school days that such a knowledge of other peoples might turn out to be almost the most important thing in my life and the lives of my children, determining whether we are to have the chance to use the skills we are taught in school, or whether we must forsake them periodically to engage in mortal combat for sheer survival.

If we studied Western Europe only a little, we studied Eastern Europe still less, and we studied Asia and its peoples not at all. Because of the failure to understand Asia, 108,000 young Americans had to give their lives in World War II in conflict with a militaristic Japan which we ourselves in ignorance had armed.

More than 20,000 additional young Americans have already been sacrificed in a war in Korea which came because of our blind refusal to recognize the malignant character of armed communism in Asia, and because at various international conferences and in that governmental agency which is responsible for handling our foreign relations, the State Department, we had men in charge who were amateurs in the field of foreign relations as compared to the trained specialists in jungle diplomacy which some other countries sent as their representatives.

A more serious deficiency in America today than atomic bombs, or long-range bombers to deliver them, or manpower, or dollars, or productive capacity, is (1) trained specialists in the strategies, tactics, and techniques of political and diplomatic struggle with the forces of communism and imperialism; and (2) a body of citizens as well educated to understand and intelligently support sound diplomatic and political measures as our people by and large do understand and will support economic and military measures.

This grievous deficiency in our resources is not the result of anybody's design; it is the result of everybody's neglect. And the neglect was due to a false sense of security; and that in turn was due to ignorance, or to indifference, or to preoccupation with our domestic interests.

The deficiency cannot be corrected just by establishing a West Point for diplomats. We must begin down in the elementary schools and especially in the high schools, as well as in the colleges and universities, to give our youth—and through them is probably the best way to give their parents—a better understanding of this new world in which we live; a better understanding of the place and position the United States occupies in it; a better understanding of the conditions we must fulfill if we are to live well or even to live at all in such a world; and better preparation to meet those conditions successfully. Only if we have such better knowledge and management of our external relations will our children have opportunity to use and enjoy the skills they are acquiring in our schools.

2

Now let us examine for a moment the need for better education with respect to the threat to our free society from within. Here too there is incredible lack of interest, and, therefore, ignorance, regarding the nature of government itself and the nature of the struggle being waged throughout the world and here in our own land between the only two main forms or philosophies of government there ever have been, although they have assumed many variations and disguises during the centuries. One form is government from the top down, the final authority in the hands of the few; the other is government from the bottom up, with final authority in the hands of the many.

We in America have been so secure and so comfortable that we could have wasteful and inefficient government and still get by. Half the people are not sufficiently concerned about government to bother to vote. But we cannot continue longer with such indifference to political forces and processes. Government is now the most costly and powerful factor in the life of every citizen—reaching into his business, his home, or his pocketbook every hour of every day. And government is determined by the politics which our intellectuals have so largely ignored or scored.

For seven centuries beginning with the Magna Charta, our ancestors fought to restrict the powers of government as the way to gain maximum freedom and dignity for every man, and thus to achieve a better life and society. Liberalism in those centuries meant winning for man the right to try to solve his problems on his own. Our forefathers came to this country, not to get government to provide for them, but to get a chance to provide for themselves. They delegated to the government only those things that they could not do, or do well, for themselves. They empowered it to assist—yes; plan—yes; supplement—yes; regulate—yes; manage—no.

Oddly enough, there are now in our country a good many who have given so little study to the nature of government and the reasons for our progress in America that they advocate returning to the essence of the system of government-from-above which our forefathers came here to escape. They call it progress; in reality, it is sheer reaction. It is going back, not ahead.

The totalitarians, whether here or abroad, who advocate such a course, define democracy as, primarily, government *for* the people. But a profound student of government like Abraham Lincoln did not make such a mistake. He understood that the unique thing about a democracy is the means it provides for attaining good ends. The essential thing is to keep government *of* the people and *by* the people through representatives elected by and directly responsible to themselves. If it is *of* and *by*, it is likely to be *for* the people. But if it is not *of* and *by* the people, it will not long be *for* the people.

All Communist regimes call themselves democracies and define democracy as "government *for* the people." The Communist regime in China officially describes itself as a "people's democratic dictatorship." It is an absolute dictatorship that does *for* the people what it decides is good for them. That is what makes it "democratic"! Anyone who disagrees is liquidated forthwith, because he is an "enemy of the people."

It was to protect our people against the development of such a perversion of freedom and democracy here that our fathers made the basic organ in our government not the executive branch, but the legislative branch, in which representatives chosen by the people themselves in every section of the country are the ones who determine what the

laws and policies shall be which the executive is supposed to carry out in good faith—whether he likes them or not.

The students in our schools—and some of their teachers—need constantly to be reminded that this *is* our system, and that under it, the seven per cent of the inhabitants of the globe who live in these United States have produced almost as much wealth and have distributed it more widely than all the other ninety-three per cent put together. We need not only to be reminded of *what* has happened here—but *why* it has happened. The reason for such an almost unbelievable development was because any person in America, more than anywhere else could do anything he wanted or had the capacity to do with any idea or ambition he had, as long as he did not interfere with the right and opportunity of every other citizen to do the same. The government's proper function was to see that he did not so interfere.

The system of government-from-the-top-down always looks so good at first; it hands out so much in apparent benefits—until it has used up the fat accumulated by previous more provident generations. The people are "better off"—until they have lost their freedom, and then the benefits are soon gone too. For the system kills the thing that gives incentive to produce. Before very long there is nothing to pass out, except scarcities—cold, hunger, and want. Look at Nazi Germany, or even at present-day England.

I think it can be stated as a law that whenever a government does for its citizens that which they have the capacity to do for themselves, it begins to destroy both their capacity and their incentive to do for themselves; it begins to weaken rather than strengthen the foundations of a free society and the means of progress.

Some citizens talk nowadays as if the Bill of Rights, the first ten admendments to the Constitution, constitute a set of guarantees by the government that it will do certain things *for* the citizen. On the contrary, every one of the "rights" is a guarantee that the government *cannot* do certain things to the citizen. Every right is a guarantee *against* the power of government. That is the way to freedom. Yet some, in ignorance of history or in wishful thinking, seem to believe that the way to expand liberty is on every occasion to increase the powers of government over the citizen.

There are real inadequacies and inequities in our system; it is our task to correct them. But let us not make the fatal mistake of destroying the three fourths that is better than anyone else has achieved, just because one fourth is not yet as good as it should be. Rather, let us preserve and strengthen the three fourths while striving to remedy the one fourth.

Last summer I read of a young Dutch student in one of our theological seminaries who was engaged to occupy a pulpit in Iowa during the pastor's vacation. In his first sermon, he said that America must share her wealth with the world. Whereupon the trustees of the church

decided he should tassel corn for the remainder of the summer rather than preach.

His statement was wholly understandable. The gap between what he saw here and what he knew existed in Europe was so great that his first reaction was to try to meet the needs of other peoples by dividing America's wealth with them. Now, if sharing our wealth would solve their problems, we should do it. But it wouldn't. The wealth would be gone in a few months. It would weaken us and not enrich them. What Europe need is not our wealth—which is a *result*—but the cause or *secret* of our wealth, which means the secret of our production.

What is the secret of our production? It is an economic system which provides opportunity and incentives for any individual who will, to improve his position, to get ahead. From what did that economic system come? It came from a political concept—the right of the individual. And from what did that political concept come? It came from a religious faith—the Christian conviction that there is a righteous and moral and loving God; that there are such things as right and wrong, good and evil, truth and falsehood; and that every man is a son of God and, therefore, precious.

One of the most skilful techniques the Communists and their dupes use to confuse us is to repeat with a sneer the old clichés like, "But you can't eat freedom. You can't wear the Constitution. You can't sleep under the Sermon on the Mount." They talk about material results to divert our attention from spiritual causes, to make us think our ideas, our political and religious faith, are not important. But they don't let themselves or their own followers fall into such a trap. You never heard a Communist say, "But you can't eat Marxism. You can't wear the teachings of Lenin and Stalin. You can't sleep under the New Democracy of Mao Tse-tung." On the contrary, once they have seized control of an area, they let the fields go untilled and the factories stand idle while they indoctrinate the people for six or eight hours a day in their system of thought. They know that the results they want come from *ideas*. How can we be so foolish and blind as to let them beguile us into playing down our fundamental ideas, from which alone came and can come the results we desire?

Recently I heard a mis-called liberal say, "But people can't eat with their minds; they can only eat with their stomachs." But as a matter of fact, it is only with their minds that people can eat, that is, can devise ways and means of getting or producing the food necessary to fill their hungry stomachs.

So, it was because of the establishment here of a free society based on a philosophy of government which in turn came from the Christian faith and its estimate of the worth of individual man, that there took place in America the greatest outburst of creative effort, imagination, industry, production and progress which the world has

ever seen. *That* is the secret that we must rediscover ourselves and share with the world! Where will it be rediscovered if not in our schools?

3

My third suggestion is that we must have better education of the hearts as well as of the minds and bodies of our children. The fact is that most people live by what they desire rather than by what they know. It is generally what a man wants, his emotional nature rather than his intellect, that motivates his conduct. Adequate education for today's world requires proper cultivation of the emotions, not just disciplining of them.

In our rebellion against the excesses or abuses of emotion which we have seen systematically cultivated by the Nazis and the Communists and by some religious sects, we have tended to go to the other extreme of seeking almost to suppress the emotions. Not only have we not stimulated and encouraged the development of healthy emotional reactions, we have tended to look down on ardent enthusiasm for a cause as unsophisticated or at least sophomoric. Too often in modern days the scholar to be admired and emulated is the man who is always objective, maintaining a sort of sustained tentativeness.

Now objectivity in examination is essential as a method of arriving at sound conclusions; but objectivity is a vice if it becomes a substitute for, rather than a means to, decision and dedication. In our desire not to influence youth prematurely or unduly, we sometimes discourage their coming to decisions that are justified by sound reason. We must indeed give them the basic facts about all systems and philosophies and faiths with fair appraisals of each; but we need also without apology to help them see that one system can be better than others, and that in terms of the good it has made possible for human beings, the free society based on the right of the individual which our fathers established in this land is far ahead of any other that has yet been established; and that, therefore, they should give to it their full allegiance and devotion, while admitting frankly its imperfections and striving constantly to correct them.

It isn't enough just to know the truth, or even to declare it in a Ph.D. thesis; one must commit one's self to it. Until people come to care as well as to know, not much happens. They are like a wonderful automobile—without any gas.

Power comes not from an idea, but from the generation of emotional dedication to an idea. It is to this generation of emotional loyalty to truth that we need to give more careful attention and effort, if we hope to develop the power for freedom that the totalitarian fanatics have for tyranny and falsehood.

The weaknesses which have brought us to this ominous hour have not been primarily military or economic. The greatest failures

of our generation have been and are political and ideological and spiritual. Therefore we must mobilize to the utmost our political and ideological and spiritual forces. We will win through only if we believe so intensely in those basic moral and political principles on which the nation was founded and which are responsible for its greatness, that we can outthink, outwork, out sacrifice and outlast those whose world is founded on lies and violence.

For our free society to survive, we must qualify in our generation as a worthy spiritual instrument as the founders of our civilization did so qualify in theirs. They built the finest material civilization the world has seen, precisely because they put first the freedom and dignity of individual man *as a spiritual being*. It was because they put that first, not second, that the political and economic system which they established was one which released, as had never been done in any other time or place, the creative capacities that are in ordinary men everywhere. Thereby was our unprecedented progress achieved.

Shall we now focus *primarily* on trying to preserve the material results? Or on reproducing the spiritual causes? With all my heart I believe that the Constitution of the United States and the system of government, not by compulsion but by voluntary federation, which our fathers established here, represent incomparably the best set of political ideas ever put together in one place in the world's history. I think they are the hope of mankind—if we make them work here at home and with contagious enthusiasm spread them abroad.

Human freedom is the most explosive idea ever turned loose in the world. We tend to take the fact, even the idea of freedom too much for granted. We will lose it unless we dedicate ourselves to its preservation here and expansion throughout the world—with all our hearts and souls and minds.

Please do not think I imagine I can give you all the answers, or that I am trying to tell you how to run your business. Rather I am appealing to you for help. Because from where I sit, our country is in deep trouble. No group of Americans has greater opportunity than you to mold, one way or the other, the thinking of those who will mold, one way or the other, the future of this nation and, very probably, of the world.

WHAT MAKES SCHOOLS BETTER?

HAROLD BENJAMIN

AS usual in a case of this kind, I asked my revered but somewhat disreputable former teacher, J. Abner Peddiwell, Ph.D., of the Peteluma

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State University, who is attending this meeting in disguise, for advice on what to say here tonight. "I was assigned the task," I told Peddiwell, "of speaking on the topic, 'What Makes Schools Better?'"

"Better?" said Peddiwell.

"That's right," I said. "Better."

"Wrong approach," said the old man flatly.

"Wrong?" I cried. "Do you realize, Sir, that I got that topic from Paul E. Elicker, the executive secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and that he represents——"

"Yes, yes," interrupted the professor. "I know, but I don't think he would mind a change of one word in that topic. What you need is a positive approach rather than the negative one suggested by the question 'What Makes Schools Better?'"

"That sounds positive to me," I ventured. "'Better' is positive, isn't it?"

"No," said Peddiwell. "It is negative. It assumes that what we have now in the way of schools is not so good—not, mind you, and *not* is certainly negative."

I remained silent, puzzled.

"Is not *not* negative?" he demanded.

"Well, yes," I began hesitatingly, "but——"

"But nothing," he interposed scornfully. "What you want to talk on is 'What Makes Schools Worse?' There's a positive approach. It assumes that what we have now is pretty good—is, mind you, and *is* is certainly positive."

I listened dumbly.

"This," he said impressively, "is what you should say."

After considering my own positive approach which he thought negative, and his negative approach which he thought positive, I decided to quote him verbatim without regard to plus or minus signs.

In order to make anything worse, (began Peddiwell), whether it is in a school, a government, a society, or a man, for that matter, it is first necessary to discover, study, and understand at least one crucial strength of the institution or the individual you are attacking. It is a mistake to start hunting first for a weakness in an organization or a person that you wish to destroy or otherwise render ineffective or powerless. A boxer who starts blithely working on his opponent's notorious susceptibility to left hooks and knows nothing or pays no attention to the man's lethal overhand right is liable to find himself peacefully reposing on the canvas staring at a beautiful display of pyrotechnics in a varicolored sky. A general who develops his strategy and tactics primarily on a basis of his foe's relative lack of armor and overlooks enemy artillery massed wheel to wheel is also riding for a fall. Similarly, a politician trying to win an election, a salesman endeavoring to break down a buyer's resistance, a lawyer fighting for a favorable verdict, or anyone else seeking an advantage against op-

position must discover and study and solve the crucial strength of his opponent, customer, or jury if he hopes to succeed.

You notice I say crucial strength. By crucial strength I mean simply a deep-seated characteristic that carries weight in the contest. The boxer may have fine curly hair or the enemy may have most resplendent uniforms but their crucial strengths are the right hand in one case and the massed artillery in the other.

So now the problem is how to make schools worse, American schools worse. We look for the most crucial strength we can find in American schools, the most deep-seated, persistent strength.

How about buildings and equipment? Are they not very important? Are they not strengths?

Well, yes, they are strengths but not crucial ones. It takes more than a gymnasium, auditorium, library, laboratory, superior floor coverings, and venetian blinds to make a good American high school.

Perhaps it is the scholarship of the teachers—how much they know about literature, mathematics, science, and history? After all, the teacher makes the school.

Well, yes, that is a strength, but still it is not the most rugged one in American schools, not the one that ties most deeply into the structure of the institution.

Ah! Organization? The 6-3-3 arrangement?

No.

Administrative set-up? Department heads and assistant principals rather than—

No, no.

Well, then. What is it? What is this crucial strength of the American school?

It is so simple that it is hard to see at close range. It is easier to recognize when you back off a ways—a century or two, for example.

The Americans began to build this great strength into their schools a long time ago. They set up their new nation squarely on the foundation of a belief in the unique worth of each individual citizen, that particular man right there, that specific woman yonder, that boy in that frontier cabin, that girl in that tenement house, that baby in that cradle. They based their new government on the proposition that each citizen had certain rights that no government or other man-made agency could properly take from him. They saw clearly that a government established by and for men with rights of this kind was not their master but their creature, and the proper education of such men was therefore a public concern of first magnitude.

So the Americans began to set up schools, first elementary schools then secondary schools and colleges, on a scale that astonished the world including themselves.

The astonishment of foreign and domestic observers of this phenomenal growth in the American schools was heightened by their

ignorance of the great strength underlying this institution. They thought that when the United States doubled its secondary-school enrollment every decade for sixty years it was merely teaching secondary-school subjects at a particular time to twice as many young people as ten years earlier.

Actually what the Americans were doing in these schools, sometimes more or less unconsciously, was changing the environment of its children and young people in important ways. They discovered that you did not educate a child merely by teaching something to him; that you educated him by changing his environment so that his total behavior would be different.

The Americans did not always accept this view easily. The elementary-school people grasped it early. The junior high-school teachers and parents got it a little more quickly than the senior high-school people, and many of the higher educational institutions have not got it yet, but the concept took hold, took root, went deep into the American educational soil, because it was needed and because American society as conceived by its people required an education of power and scope which could be secured by this approach and this approach only.

How did the Americans develop this crucial strength?

First, they invented various instruments for putting their schools in the lives of their people and their communities. Obviously, it was difficult to change a child's environment for educational purposes in a glass cage sealed off from the community. So the Americans invented the lay board of education; they developed parents associations; they utilized the interests of civic, professional, business, labor, patriotic, and other community groups to understand, counsel, and support the public schools.

Second, they broke gradually away from a curriculum of logically organized information, skills, and attitudes designed for the education-by-teaching-something-to-the-boy-period system. In the elementary schools they began to teach by modifying a whole phase of the learning environment. To be specific, the children were not merely educated that $2 + 2 = 4$, but they were educated in a play store, a modified environment, in which they learned, incidentally of course, that $2 + 2$ did equal 4, and they learned it somewhat better thereby.

In the secondary schools, the Americans began to do the same sort of thing. They developed projects, activity programs, guidance facilities—all with the purpose of educating the boys and girls by wise modification of their environment rather than merely by teaching to them the general formula for the solution of a quadratic or that verbs compounded with *ad-ante-con-in-inter-ob-post-prae-pro-sub-super* and sometimes *circum* take the dative, or 1066, or *It is I*. And these Americans in their education capitalized on and developed this crucial

strength by a continuing build-up of relationships of the school in and with the community.

How then would you go about making these American schools worse? You would attack that crucial strength. You would call the kind of education that seeks to modify a learner's environment significantly harsh names. You would call it progressive education and you would shout over and over again that progressive education increases delinquency. You would attack the social studies as being socialistic, insist that socialism is the same as communism and then scream in horror at the stain of the association you had just made.

You would set up self-appointed censors of school books and special "school" or "educational" councils or committees or commissions deriving their authority from their own destructive purposes, trying to nullify and cut the ground from under the great inventions of lay boards of education and parent-teacher associations. You would rally to your support those who do not believe in the American ideal of the unique worth of the individual.

That is the way, the most effective way, to make the schools worse.

At this point my impatience overcame me.

"Look, Dr. Peddiwell," I cried. "I don't want to make 'em worse!"

"You don't," he asked in surprised tones.

"No, of course, not. I'm a teacher. I'm an American who holds that belief in the unique worth of the individual upon which you say the country was founded. I believe in that government of law which is the creature and the servant of free men. I want public education which has that crucial strength for such people in such a society. I don't want to tear down our public schools. I want to build them up. I don't want to make them worse. I want to make them better, just as Paul Elicker said."

"Oh," said the old man. "Well, in that case, you just reverse the suggestions I have already given. An institution can be weakened or destroyed by a skillful attack on its strong points. It can best achieve greatness too by the development of its strong points."

"To make the schools better, then, we just build up this thing you called the crucial strength?"

"Yes."

"But our weaknesses? Shouldn't we look at them and protect them against attacks?"

"If you build your strong points high enough," said the professor, "your weaknesses will take care of themselves, but if you retreat from your strong points in the face of attack to nurse and guard your weaknesses you too may suddenly connect your chin with a looping overhand right or find your tanks in a defile with massed guns on both flanks."

Third General Session

Sunday, February 17, 3:00 P. M., Hall of Mirrors

Vesper Service

Presiding: Joseph C. McLain, Principal, Mamaroneck Senior High School, Mamaroneck, New York; Second Vice President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Music by the Lorain High School A Cappella Choir, Lorain, Ohio; enrollment, 1,400; *Howard F. Hansen*, Director of Choral Music Activities; *Earle R. Seidner*, Principal.

Scripture Reading and Prayer by Rabbi Robert L. Katz, Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Address:

RELIGION IN OUR LIVES AS EDUCATORS

RAYMOND WALTERS

1

ALMOST exactly one hundred and ten years ago (Sunday June 5, 1842) the headmaster of a British school wrote in his diary: "I have been just looking over a newspaper, one of the most painful and solemn studies in the world, if it be read thoughtfully. So much of sin and so much suffering in the world as are there displayed, and no one seems able to remedy either."¹ How deeply must those words of Thomas Arnold of Rugby in 1842 be echoed by us as educators in 1952 when we read thoughtfully newspaper reports of the contemporary world. So much indeed of sin and suffering!

Thomas Arnold's diary entry of a century ago closes with a prayer to God that "He may keep me His by night and by day and strengthen me to bear and to do His will, through Jesus Christ." It is pertinent that the Rugby schoolmaster's brilliant son, Matthew Arnold—for many years a hard-working inspector of schools—felt the same sense of sin and suffering and ultimately found religious assurance as expressed in his writing: "Try all the ways to righteousness you can think of, and you will find that no way brings you to it except the way of Jesus."²

¹*The Life and Correspondence of Thomas Arnold, D.D.* by Arthur Penrhyn Stanley London, 1882. Volume II, p. 273.

²*Literature and Dogma*, New York, 1924. p. 300.

Raymond Walters is President of the University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.

The first question I propose that we ask this afternoon seeking mutual answers, is this: We American educators of 1952 are certainly trying to carry our share of responsibility for world woe, but are we warranted in relying—as did the British educators Thomas Arnold in 1842 and Matthew Arnold in 1882—upon the religious faith which sustained them? Sincerity in our answers counts tremendously in our own inner lives and in our influence as educators.

To the question about the rationality of religious faith we shall consider answers *against* and *for* such faith. Answers against have been emphatically given by certain vigorous advocates of mechanistic determinism, who would smile at the views and faith of the schoolmaster Arnolds, father and son. Consider, for example, the assertion of a British philosopher now residing in the United States that science "has killed religion." He argues that scientific discoveries have destroyed "the essence of the religious faith itself, which is the faith that there is plan and purpose in the world." He concludes that we live in "a purposeless and meaningless universe."³

Representative of opposing political and economic answers is the doctrine which sneers that "Christianity knew only *one* point in which all men were equal: that all were equally born in original sin."⁴ This doctrine exalts "the materialistic standpoint," *i.e.*, the "dialectic materialism," whose leading principles, (so Frederick Engels declared) belong in their "final, clear formulation" to Karl Marx.⁵ It was Marx and Engels, who in the *Communist Manifesto* of 1848, cried "Working men of all countries, unite!"⁶ This Marxian doctrine is the doctrine of Lenin, of Stalin, and of Soviet communism in general.

"The communist vision," as a former American member of the Communist party describes it, "is the vision of Man without God. It is the vision of man's mind displacing God as the creative intelligence of the world. It is the vision of man's liberated mind, by the sole force of its rational intelligence, redirecting man's destiny and reorganizing man's life and the world."⁷

The same American who wrote the foregoing statement of the vision of communism has also given an answer to it, explaining why he renounced communism. He tells of a former German consul, extremely pro-communist, who one night in Moscow heard screams—the screams of victims of communist policy. "What communist has not heard those screams?" says this American and he concludes: "Communism is what happens when, in the name of Mind, men free them-

³"Man Against Darkness," W. T. Stace, *The Atlantic*, September, 1948, p. 54.

⁴*A Handbook of Marxism*, Frederick Engels; Random House, New York, p. 250.

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 223.

⁶*The Essentials of Marx*, Vanguard Press, New York, p. 65.

⁷"I Was the Witness," Whittaker Chambers, *Saturday Evening Post*, February 9, 1952, p. 60.

selves from God.... History is cluttered with the wreckage of nations that became indifferent to God, and died."⁸

To the view of the professional philosopher who insists that science has killed religion, another professional philosopher has retorted that such an assertion is pseudo-scientific, that it represents "a dogmatism that is scientifically, philosophically, and democratically insufferable." Many leading scientists are today recognizing the limitations of their scientific method and "the inability of science, in principle, to validate or invalidate values and human ends."⁹ The philosopher who answers thus is a member of the Guild of Scholars in the Episcopal Church. The Guild challenges those "who preach a dogmatic naturalism," affirms the validity of religion and urges the priority of the historic Christian faith.

Dealing with atheism, another of the Guild scholars has said: "The existence of God is an insurmountable obstacle to making man, individually or collectively, the sole standard of goodness, the supreme object of worship. Precisely that, however, is the mark of the religion of the atheists at its best. At its worst, a derivative of man, humanity, the proletariat, or the state is treated as sovereign. In any case, God stands in the way, and the atheist sets out to remove Him."¹⁰

This professor goes on to say that argument alone cannot prove the non-existence of God, "even less than can argument alone prove his existence." He maintains that: "The type of interpretation by which we reach God and open ourselves to Him differs in kind from the interpretation involved in reaching the objects of the natural sciences.... In the Christian religion, faith goes go beyond what we in this world can know."¹¹

For myself, as a layman, I have accepted the conclusion that, since science is on one plane and religion (as well as poetry and music) is on another plane, the scientist has no more authority to dogmatize regarding religion than the theologian has regarding science. It is my observation that the ablest scientists and theologians observe than limitation. Accordingly, I have adopted this as my own practical criterion: that when scientific knowledge is not relevant or when relevant it does not preclude, I am entitled to and do exercise the "right to believe." I have further taken as my own the pragmatic principle of William James that, "if the hypothesis of God works satisfactorily, in the widest sense of the word, it is true."¹² For me, it does work; for me it is true. God exists.

⁸*Ibid.*, p. 63.

⁹*Christianity and Reason: Seven Essays*, Theodore M. Greene; Oxford University Press, 1951, pages 5, 16.

¹⁰"Christianity and Reason," Howard D. Roelofs, p. 103.

¹¹*Ibid.*, pages 121, 142.

¹²*Pragmatism*, William James; Longmans, Green, New York.

3

Let us pass now to considering religion in regard to the broad theme of this convention, the theme of good citizenship. I suggest that our best conception of American citizenship is built upon two traditions; one of them is reason, the second is patriotic devotion which is basically religious devotion.

The tradition of reason in citizenship as it prevailed among the eighteenth century founders of the American Republic becomes clear when you study the history of the signing of the Declaration of Independence and of the adoption of the Federal Constitution. You will find that, with all their divergences of opinion and their vigorous debate, they did follow rational thought processes, they did base their case upon reason. If you think I exaggerate, please re-read the Declaration, the Constitution with its safe-guarding Bill of Rights, and the Federalist Papers. In all, you will find logic and authentic spirit of reason.

The second golden thread in the fabric our founding fathers wove was the spirit of patriotic devotion animated by religious feeling. We can trace this back to the well-known piety of the early settlers of New England and to the less-known piety of the earlier settlers of Virginia. If you visit Williamsburg, now mellow in its restoration, you can read a remarkable tablet in the lovely old edifice, Bruton Church. The tablet refers to the meeting at Jamestown on July 30, 1619, of the "1st Representative Legislative Assembly held in America: Forasmuch as men's affairs doe little prosper when God's service is neglected, all the Burgesses took their place in the quire till a prayer was said by Mr. Bucke, the minister, that it would please God to guide and sanctifie all our proceedings to His own glory and the good of the plantation."

A century and a half later, when Thomas Jefferson penned the 1776 Declaration of Independence, God was invoked in the majestic closing lines of the document which all representatives signed: "And for the support of this declaration with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes and our sacred honour."

When the delegates of the victorious colonies assembled at Philadelphia in 1787 and were having rough sailing in drawing up their Federal Constitution, they heard Benjamin Franklin move that the Convention open its later sessions with prayer. Said this wisest of statesmen: "I have lived, Sir, a long time and the longer I live the more convincing proofs I see of this truth: that God governs in the affairs of men. And if a sparrow cannot fall to the ground without His notice, is it probable that an empire can rise without His aid?" And Washington, who had summoned "a spirit of amity," declared when the Constitution was finally adopted, "the event is in the hand of God."

4

A second question, "What should public educators do regarding religion?", may receive light in consequence of a project of an American Council on Education committee now under way. It is defined thus: "An inquiry into the function of the public schools, in their own right and on their own initiative, in assisting youth to have an intelligent understanding of the historical and contemporary role of religion in human affairs." The term "public" in this inquiry includes elementary schools, high schools, colleges, universities, and professional schools supported principally by public tax funds.

It would appear to me that an approach and a procedure could be developed which would bring to all of our students a lively sense of good citizenship in accordance with authentic Americanism. It would bring out the two glowing facts about our heritage to which I have referred—the spirit of reason by which our founding fathers had recourse to logic rather than to invective; the spirit of patriotic devotion by which awareness of Divine Providence imbued their thoughts and acts.

It should be indicated that the essence of Americanism—if we have the wit to perceive it—is the religious conception of the dignity and worth of the individual soul; that the citizen is important because he is a child of God. He has rights and he has duties. His civic duties stem back to the Ten Commandments of Moses and to the Two Great Commandments which Jesus told us embrace all of the law and the prophets. In his second Great Commandment, "to love thy neighbor as thyself," lies the heart of the moral law, the social responsibility of the good citizen.

5

My brief words in conclusion relate to religion in our lives as educators. Religious conviction forms, as I see it, the one firm reliance for most of us. It is true that a few admirable men have got along without such faith and have lived noble lives—men such as Thomas Henry Huxley and John Stuart Mill, to name contemporaries of the Arnolds whom I began by quoting. For my own part, I go along with Thomas Arnold and his humble prayer and with Matthew Arnold in his affirmation that the way of Jesus is the true way.

If we educators merely mouth articles of faith and do not have faith in our minds and hearts, we shall fool no one. If we speak insincerely, those around us will know it, for, to paraphrase Emerson, *What we are speaks so loudly that our students cannot hear what we say!*

As an older educator, I can testify to you who are younger that, in the confusion and the danger of this era, we can find courage to help clear the confusion and to surmount the danger by inspiration from the Old Testament and the New. Here are the words of the Psalmist: "The Lord will give strength unto his people; the Lord will bless his people

with peace." And these are the words of Jesus: "Let not your heart be troubled; neither let it be afraid. . . . My peace I give unto you."

Music and Musical Benediction by the DeVilbiss High School A Cappella Choir, Toledo, Ohio; enrollment, 1,972; J. Philip Zaugg, Director; Merritt C. Nauts, Principal.

Reception

Sunday, February 17, 4:15 P. M., Pavillon Caprice

Chairman: Mrs. Ruth S. Lape, Principal, East Vocational High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; Chairman of Reception.

About 2,000 persons attended the reception given by the following organizations acting as hosts: The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the Cincinnati High-School Principals Council, the Cincinnati Valley Principals Association, the Indiana Association of Secondary-School Principals, the Kentucky Association of Secondary-School Principals, and the Ohio High-School Principals Association.

Fourth General Session

Sunday, February 17, 8:00 P. M., Hall of Mirrors

Presiding: Leland N. Drake, Principal, Mound Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio; Member, Executive Committee, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Chairman: Rayburn W. Cadwallader, Principal, Western Hills High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; Chairman, Music Committee.

Music by the Burnham High School Choir, Sylvania, Ohio; enrollment, 1,262; Richard L. Sutch, Director of Vocal Music; C. David Cotterman, Principal; the Western Hills High School Band, Cincinnati, Ohio; enrollment, 2,450; Andred Brady, Conductor; Rayburn W. Cadwallader, Principal; and the Arsenal Technical High School Choir, Indianapolis, Indiana; enrollment, 4,055; J. Russell Paston, Head, Music Department; Hanson H. Anderson, Principal.

Fifth General Session

Monday, February 18, 9:30 A. M., Hall of Mirrors

Presiding: James E. Blue, Principal, West Senior High School, Rockford, Illinois; Member, Executive Committee, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Invocation by The Rev. Lester E. Kemper, Minister, Kennedy Heights Presbyterian Church, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Music by the Wyoming High School A Cappella Choir, Wyoming, Ohio; enrollment, 374; Harriett L. Ilse, Vocal Director, Bernard S. Bradbury, Principal.

Addresses:

EDUCATION AND THE NATIONAL SECURITY

JOHN H. FISCHER

IT IS A great and humbling privilege to be invited to address your Association. Without my repeating it, you know the power that resides in the high schools of our nation. You know also the burden of their leadership. Your tasks and those of the teachers with whom you serve are especially heavy at this time because of the problems which confront our nation and the world.

Ideological differences of the most fundamental nature now divide into two opposing camps most of the nations of the earth. In this great conflict the influence and power of the United States are undeniable, and on all sides it is agreed that what we think, believe, and do will alter for good or ill the course of men's lives everywhere. What we teach and how we teach it are of greater moment now than they have ever been before.

1

As we attempt to analyze the relationship between education and the national security, it is necessary that we first determine what is to be encompassed in our concept of security. Are we concerned primarily with the mobilization of a strong military force? Is our main objective greater industrial output? Is effective diplomacy our greatest need? Is our chief problem the development of the hydrogen bomb, or atomic artillery, or basic research in nuclear physics? Or the ac-

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quisition and conservation of raw materials, or the establishment of detailed plans to evacuate our cities?

All of these are, of course, important, but none of them is our central problem. Every one of them is as critical for Russia as it is for us, but the conflict between democracy and totalitarianism is no mere test of physical strength. This current and continuing controversy is more than that for it is concerned with ends as well as with means. This is a contest of basic philosophies as well as of physical resources, and all of us, especially we who are concerned with the nurture of youth, must determine our actions in accordance with that fact. We cannot stress too often that we are engaged in a struggle for men's minds and hearts. Win, lose, or draw in the military sphere, the real victor will be the side to which men are willing to turn in the hope of finding a better life.

Every analysis which is made of the forces now at work in the world, every prediction concerning the outcome points to the inescapable conclusion that the United States will be tested in its strength as no nation ever has been tried. Among our allies we must possess the wisdom and courage of high leadership. Toward our enemies we must exhibit fortitude and resolution. Among ourselves we must share faith and vision and confidence. Strong qualities of character are the foundations of our hope. However successfully we stockpile goods, or organize the millions of our men, we dare not trust our future to superior force alone. The battles for human liberty can be successfully waged and won only by men and women who have learned the meaning of democracy and freely have chosen its values as their own.

Our ultimate success and our current security require far more than beating the Russians at their own game. Merely to cow the Communists into quiescence is not a satisfactory goal for us, nor shall we find peace in such a course. We cannot successfully separate our ends and our means. As George Kennan, our new ambassador to Russia puts it, "It is primarily a question of what we urge upon ourselves. It is a question of the spirit and purpose of American national life itself. Any message which we try to bring to others will be effective only if it is in accord with what we are to ourselves, and if this is something sufficiently impressive to compel the respect and confidence of a world which, despite all its material difficulties, is still more ready to recognize and respect spiritual distinction than material opulence."

Russia must continue to build her power through the dictatorial control and use of men in masses. We must increase our strength principally by helping each other to become better men and by providing the ways to work well and harmoniously together.

The tools are, of course, important. If we neglect to husband our resources or if we fail to forge the physical weapons we need, we shall

court disaster. But far greater disaster lies ahead if we forget what it is we are defending.

Democracy cannot be static. When it stops experimenting, when it ceases to revolt against all the forms of human bondage, when it loses its vigor or its vision, it dies. Whatever else we need to do, we must never lose sight of the heart of our problem. The biggest job of all is a qualitative job. Freedom is a highly perishable commodity, and it can wither away completely if we try to store it in a safe place while we wait for a more suitable time to cultivate it.

To be sure, we may have to forgo a bit of butter for more guns. Some of us may even have to drive our cars until they are three years old. But let us not be careless about what we select to sacrifice. What we are striving to keep secure is our way of life, our free institutions, our liberal culture. Freedom of inquiry, freedom of choice and belief, freedom of enterprise—these are what we cherish. If we lose them, then, indeed, shall we be lost. For these are the ways by which free men renew and extend their liberty; and conversely, they require for their preservation men who are strong enough, devoted enough, and clear-headed enough to assert their freedom and to try to improve it.

The indispensable factor of our national security is a citizenry strong in the knowledge of its heritage, firm in its faith, skilled in the arts of production and defense and confident in its ability to work effectively together. Such men and women have given America all the greatness it has ever had. Whatever stature we are to achieve in this period will likewise flow from such citizens.

2

The greatness of a people is never due to a single quality or a single institution. Neither is the character of one man to be explained in terms of a simple cause. What any generation becomes and achieves are the result of many forces and factors. As a child goes forth all that he looks upon he becomes. The home, the church, the community, industry, mass communication—all of these and others mold and shape the personalities of our people. Every one adds or detracts, or multiplies as it touches our talents or our potentialities. But long ago we learned that in education lies the best hope and the most promising tool for building a nation of men fit to be free.

From our beginning we have been devoted to the fundamental principle that education is a basic social process for strengthening the nation because it informs the people and liberates their powers. In the writings of the founding fathers we find abundant evidence of their thoughts upon this subject. In every generation since, the relationship of learning and competence to the national welfare has been emphasized. Equality of opportunity to secure an education suited to one's talents is central to our whole social philosophy.

The rightness of these principles and the policies to which they have given life is attested by the results which they have produced. Education has added much to our skill in agriculture and industry and has improved our health. It has broadened our vision and enriched the lives of millions. It has increased our ability to govern ourselves. It has made it possible for children of all the nations of the earth to live here in unity and harmony. It has broken the shackles of poverty and opened doors of opportunity to the able wherever they might be found. In none of these ways have we yet reached our goals, but in all of them we have made the most remarkable gains.

Nowhere on earth has education been used so effectively to do so much for so many. Nowhere have the results so completely justified the faith which set the whole affair in motion. Can we now in these troubled times find in education any of the strength that we so desperately need, and need to harness? I believe that we can.

For one thing, education now, as it has in the past, can help our people to know, to understand, and to love democracy. Whether one's role is to stand guard in a far land, to serve impersonally on an assembly line in a great factory, or to teach a class of children in a remote school, patriotism based upon intelligence will add to the quality with which that role is performed. Good schools can develop such patriotism and it is doubtful that in our complex society, it can be developed without them.

Education can increase our sensitivity to moral and spiritual values. Our nation was founded by God-fearing people. Most of us draw our deepest faith from religious sources. We are as much concerned with perpetuating our religious institutions as we are with keeping them free of governmental connections. We are determined also to use our social institutions to make our spiritual values come true in our daily life.

The concept of human brotherhood is the foundation of democracy. It is of the greatest significance, therefore, that in our schools, regardless of our sectarian diversity, we are able to unite in practical plans for building constructive attitudes and for teaching our youth to engage in works which all our faiths approve.

In personal relationships, in family life, in civic activities, as well as in international affairs, these efforts will have their effect. The moral stature and force of America can be substantially enhanced by what we do in our classrooms.

Education can improve our physical health. Vast increases have occurred in our knowledge and skill in medicine, physiology, nutrition, and the other sciences which deal with health and healing. Yet many of our people are malnourished and diseased. Others suffer from correctable defects of hearing or vision. Millions require dental treatment and correction.

Because of these conditions our nation has been deprived of the military services of millions of its young men. Industrial efficiency and domestic happiness are continually reduced by sickness and deficiencies which could be corrected.

More medical care and better food are needed, but experience has demonstrated that good health education can produce substantial improvements. Combined with regular examinations and well planned programs of physical activity, sound health instruction can do much to strengthen our people for peace or war.

Education can also build mental health. It is the teacher, not the psychiatrist, who is in the best position to raise the level of mental well-being in any community. Sound personalities, like sound bodies, are developed through sensible daily living, satisfying relationships, and wise guidance. All of these are available to children in good schools.

Education can identify and nurture the gifted among us. Important as a universal common education may be, it is but the foundation of the educational plan necessary for a democracy. Thomas Jefferson recognized this truth and proposed a pyramidal school structure to assure the continuing preparation of the ablest young people for positions of social responsibility and leadership. The growing complexity of our problems now calls for ever more highly endowed and better trained men and women in a wide variety of occupations.

Whatever progress society makes begins with giving group approval to goals discovered and proposed by creative pioneers. The schools of America can do more than any other institution to find and equip such leaders. On this subject, Vannevar Bush has said, "It is essential that highly endowed youngsters, wherever located, may come forward with full educational equipment to attack the great problems of the future, in law, medicine, principles of government, social relations, science, engineering, business theory and practice, and in the humanities which underlie all our thought on the problems of civilization."

Education can compensate for handicaps. We are concerned not only with raising the general average of our performance and encouraging the brilliant to venture out ahead. We are equally interested in those who are prevented from making their maximum contribution because of handicaps of one sort or another. We know that it cannot be really well for all of us until life is good for each of us. Whether our purpose is the narrow aim of increasing personal productivity or the higher objective of a more abundant life for the backward and afflicted, our common welfare requires the best education for every child. Good teaching techniques have already been devised and others can be developed to minimize the handicaps of many of our people. Here, again, our schools can contribute strongly to a great social need.

Education can build civic competence. In a lecture in 1945, George Counts said this:

The successful operation of this form of government places the heaviest burdens on the understanding and the virtue of all the people. Laws neither make or enforce themselves. Likewise the ability to make laws and the disposition to obey them are not an expression of untutored "human nature." Also, acceptance of majority decision and respect for minority rights are not a gift of the germ plasm to free society. The entire process of democratic constitutional government requires a long period of carefully guided learning. Only by some fortunate chance can the quality of the laws and their administration rise above the wisdom and the devotion of the citizens. If we should lose the necessary powers of mind and heart, if we should fail to understand the world of our time, if we should cease to share great common loyalties and purposes, if we should become divided into irreconcilable factions and classes, if we should lose faith in the essential justice of our institutions, if we should refuse to accept the verdict of the ballot, if we should grow indifferent to or unskilled in the discharge of our civic responsibilities, if we should grossly degrade the political process by resort to dishonesty, falsehood, and vituperation, democratic constitutional government would enter upon the road to decay and dissolution.

Our schools are the unique agency which we have set up to see that our constitutional processes are perpetuated and that our competence in self-rule is continually improved. This they can do. This they must continue to do.

Education can add to our economic productivity. Our nation holds within its borders the most fabulous array of natural wealth. But oil and ore, fields and forests and streams are useless treasure until human intelligence and skill convert them into energy and goods. To our ability to do this supremely well we can trace much of progress of our country. Adaptability, inventiveness, resourcefulness, enterprise—all these are products of our schools. These qualities far more than our material wealth itself have made us what we are. Our schools are continually releasing and channeling such characteristics.

Education can enrich our home life. Supplementing the influence of parents and the church, giving practice in the skills of human relations, teaching better the arts by which we live, schools build better homes and families. In doing this, the schools become a strong counteragent to the disruptive forces of our times. Thus, the schools are building for today and laying firm foundations for generations yet unborn.

Education can contribute to our military strength. However much we may deplore them, we may not safely ignore the facts we face. Our adversaries are strong, physically and industrially. Particularly are they strong in their military preparations. It would be sheer foolishness on our part to neglect our own armed forces. To their fullest development we must devote all of the resources and intelligence that we can. But, here again, we dare not lose sight of the central concern.

Our forces have never been composed of helpless slaves but rather of self-respecting citizen-soldiers. They have trained and when neces-

sary they have fought because of conviction and devotion. As free men they have stood "between their loved homes and the war's desolation." But the American soldier of mid-twentieth century, in addition to possessing the honored virtues of his forebears, must be mechanically more adept and mentally more alert. He must know more and have a greater variety of skills than any fighter before him. This man's army is a smart man's army, and you can say that again for Navy and Air.

Never has a sound educational system been so necessary to build a strong defense force and never before has so large a proportion of our young men been needed over so long a period of time. Only in good schools can our youth acquire the background of understanding, habits, and skills which are needed in the forces that are required for the long years of armed peace which now stretch out before us.

Yes, there are many ways in which education, and only education, can add to our national security. The President's Advisory Commission on Universal Training, the Compton Commission, recognized this in its 1947 report. It pointed out our number one security requirement is a strong, united nation. To maintain such a nation, it stressed the need for a high general level of education. "This is recommended," the Commission said, "not only so that we may have enough people in the more special and technical fields that lead to industrial and scientific preeminence but also so that we may have an informed public opinion, cognizant of society's problems, and a universal understanding among our citizens of their duties as citizens, of their responsibility for the general welfare, of their country's obligations in the world community, and of the benefits of democracy."

3

The crucial part of the question we are here discussing is the action phase. Let us assume that we are agreed upon the need for a citizenry "physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight." Let us assume that we are together in seeing education as the key instrument of social policy for building such a people. I believe that so far the vast majority of Americans are in agreement. But here the great difficulties begin to arise, for here we face the need to act, to undertake commitments, to allocate money, materials, and men.

Some of you who read the January report of Charles E. Wilson, the Director of Defense Mobilization, must have been impressed, as I was, by his statement of the four basic characteristics of the military production program, for they parallel so closely the situation we face with regard to education. Mr. Wilson said:

1. It is a program for strength over a long period of time.
2. It is a program with defined production objectives.
3. It is a program which emphasizes new and highest quality weapons.
4. It is a program with a long lead time on many items.

All of us who share in determining the educational program of the United States will do well to consider how truly these statements apply to our work. The long-range implications, the definition of objectives, the emphasis on good and new devices, the extended tooling-up period, all are as relevant for education as for any other aspect of our total security program.

In the first place, we must recognize the long-range nature of our educational objectives and the contributions which the schools make to our life, as persons and as a people. Too often in our haste we become excited over adding some new unit to the fourth year of the high-school curriculum, and forget the fundamental importance of the kindergarten and the primary grades. Each year we learn more about the complex ways that children grow and the multitude of factors which affect their social adjustment. Yet there remains a widespread assumption that we can produce a higher level of citizenship if only we teach a few more facts about American History.

Hope springs eternal that we can find some short cut to good education and informed maturity. It is, I believe, one of our chief responsibilities as teachers to continue to emphasize the relation of good teaching and sound school programs to individual development and to point out over and over again that there is no quick new way to grow up. From the nursery school through the university, our educational institutions must be as good as we can make them. Every level adds its own unique contribution to the final result.

Let me point out but a single example. Last year over 300,000 American children were denied full time schooling because their schoolhouses were too small to accommodate them. It is obviously of the greatest urgency that we do all that we can, as soon as we can, to remedy the overcrowded conditions of our elementary schools and to anticipate the enrollment increases which shortly will reach the high schools. The evil effects of these conditions are but partly evident now. Their full effect will be felt only as poorly prepared students enter secondary schools and colleges or emerge into the employment market. By that time much irretrievable harm will have been done and a generation will have been permanently handicapped. Let us not forget that education is a long-term investment and that we can expect dividends only if we have the foresight to make our investment sufficiently large and sufficiently early.

Secondly, we must clarify and define what we wish to accomplish through our schools and where and how this is to be done. It is a priceless asset to America that our schools are locally controlled, for so long as that is true they are forever an obstacle to a monolithic pattern of youth training. But this system imposes tremendous responsibility upon the local board of education, the district administration, and the individual faculty. It gives the local community power to determine whether and to what degree the schools are to meet their

historic challenge. I need not tell this audience how great is the variation in the quality of education throughout our country, or how many thousands of our youth are denied opportunities merely because they selected unwisely the state, county, or city in which they were born.

How shall we educate our youth well enough everywhere to provide for our true security and yet continue to preserve the integrity of a locally controlled system of schools? For our security is indivisible, but much of our strength is in our diversity and individuality.

One part of the answer very probably lies in the increasing development of citizen interest in the schools in every community so that they may become more responsive to the aspirations and needs of those they serve.

Another part of the answer lies in a more realistic approach to the problems of financing American education. So mobile is our population, so interdependent are all the sections of our country, that poor schools anywhere are a threat to the entire nation. Within our states and among them at the Federal level we must devise ways of using our common wealth for our common purposes. We ought to equalize educational opportunity because we believe in the basic rights of American children everywhere. If we are insensitive to that reasoning we would better do it lest our shortsightedness bring down upon us the social ills which inevitably come when our close neighbors are ignorant and unproductive.

A third parallel with our weapons program lies in the necessity to develop techniques of the highest quality and to devise new approaches to our tasks. Competent research has shown that on the average a half century elapses from the time a new educational procedure is invented until it is universally in use in our schools. Had it taken that long for the so-called miracle drugs to become widely used in our hospitals many of us in this room would have been dead some years ago. Over the years what a staggering list of educational casualties has been accumulated because it has taken us so long to disseminate and accept better ways to teach reading, to discover aptitudes, to utilize visual methods of teaching, or to deal with emotional difficulties in children!

If education is to meet the full demands of the modern world, we shall need to make much more rapid progress than we have made in using the research already available and in pushing further back the frontiers of our knowledge in teaching techniques. We have already spent a billion dollars on the Hydrogen bomb. It will be a long while before we shall have spent our first billion for research in education. Some of us would temporarily settle for as much as we now spend on research in animal husbandry.

It is high time that we stopped spreading liberal platitudes about our devotion to education and began putting a few millions to work

where they can make a real difference in our schools. We already have far more knowledge about good teaching than we are using. This knowledge should be put to work. And at the same time we ought to get as busy about inventing better schools as we have long been about inventing better automobiles.

Finally, there is the long lead time to which Mr. Wilson referred. He was commenting on such items as new jet planes, which as we all know require long preparation. Tons of blue prints must be drawn up, machine tools must be designed, factories must be built, experimental models must be tested before a new jet is ready for mass production. We don't engage in mass production, but education requires a long lead too.

For one thing, there are schoolhouses to be built. They take a lot of time, even after we know exactly what we want. And there are curricula to be developed. These have been known to take years in the making.

But most important of all are the teachers. Buildings can sometimes be improvised. I heard recently of a town where a circus tent was used to house a school. Ingenious teachers have done wonderful things with the barest of equipment and few books. But there never was a school without a teacher. They are quite difficult to improvise. Even the most experienced principals have had trouble doing that.

Here is the real bottleneck in American education. For we face teacher shortages both in quantity and quality. According to figures released recently, of college freshmen students in education, only twenty-seven per cent were found eligible for draft deferment on the basis of their scores on the Selective Service tests. Students in the humanities, in the sciences, in engineering all ranked higher. This is a matter for our serious attention.

To be sure, there is no assurance that a brilliant student will become a good instructor, but there is likewise no reason to believe that poor scholarship indicates a promising teacher. Are we like the farmer in the story, using our good potatoes for other purposes and saving a lot of small ones for seed?

The development and maintenance of a strong corps of teachers is the number one job for American education. A large share of the work of recruiting young men and women for this service must be done by your Association. You are entitled to the best support you can be given and I hope that in every community represented here the necessity for that support will be recognized and acted upon.

This, then, is the substance of what I have wanted to say to you this morning.

Our hope lies less in our material might than in the moral stature of our people. Strength of mind and heart, skill in the arts we live by, and devotion to our common cause can flow freely from our schools if only they be good enough. What we have accomplished through them in

the past gives us reason to face the future with hope and confidence. But if we fail to press ahead, we shall fail indeed, for schools barely good enough for yesterday will fall far short of the needs which now confront us.

We must promptly decide nationally and in every one of the tens of thousands of our school districts what the mission of our schools is to be. Realistically we must allocate to them the men, the materials, and the money which that mission requires for its completion. This is a basic strategic commitment, and we must deal with it in that fashion. It is impossible, I think, to overestimate the importance or the consequences of this decision.

The words of a very great American, spoken in another connection, are most appropriate for us today.

"It is for us the living...to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced... that government of the people, by the people, for the people shall not perish from the earth."

THE IMPLICATIONS OF UNIVERSAL MILITARY TRAINING FOR YOUTH AND EDUCATION

RALPH W. McDONALD

LET US distinguish at the outset between universal military service in wartime and universal military training in peacetime. They are two entirely different things. We are now at war, whether we call it by that name or not. The drafting of able-bodied young men is absolutely necessary at this time. It will continue to be necessary for the foreseeable future. This is the democratic way of providing armed forces when the Nation is at war or faces the immediate threat of war. The United States has always followed this policy. Until wars cease, we shall continue to do so. A peacetime program of universal military training is totally different. Such a system is intended to be used only when the prospects are for a prolonged period of peace. At any time there is an immediate prospect of war, we would certainly have to revert to our time-honored system of drafting men for military service.

At the present time there is no possibility whatever of establishing universal military training. We must have all of our drafted men for our regular armed services. This need will continue for at least three or four years at the very minimum. So long as we wage war in Korea, or maintain several divisions on foreign soil in Europe, Asia, or elsewhere, we have no choice. We must have 3,500,000 or more men under arms, and this will require the continued use of our Selective Service

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system. If we were to institute universal military training, it would mean that we would draft all boys at 18, take them to camp for six months of training, send them back home as members of the Reserves, then after a year or two draft them for two years of regular service. Such double-drafting would be foolish as well as unfair. It is much better to draft the boys once and have them go right into the armed forces while their training is fresh.

An effort is being made, however, to adopt a universal military training bill now. The proponents admit that it cannot possibly be put into effect for an indefinite period, but they want to enact the bill now anyway.

Since the beginning of this Nation there have been periodic efforts to impose upon the people of the United States some form of universal military training as a routine part of our peacetime existence. There were determined efforts to establish compulsory peacetime military training after World Wars I and II. We can look back through the public records for 150 years and find the insistent demands of individuals and groups from time to time urging the adoption of this measure. So insistent were these demands in the early days that James Madison felt it necessary to warn the people, "Constant apprehension of war has the tendency to render the head too large for the body. . . . Throughout all Europe the armies kept up under the pretext of defending have enslaved the people." Throughout our entire history the people of the United States have always decisively rejected every effort to establish compulsory peacetime military service. Those who would like to see the measure passed realize full well that only in a period of widespread fear and confusion in the public mind will the American people even consider such action. We are now in the midst of such a period; hence the proponents of universal military training are attempting to take advantage of the situation and secure the passing of this measure.

It is obvious to all of us, however, that we cannot draft all the young men for a system of universal military training and eight years of service in the Reserves and at the same time draft all the same young men for active service in the Nation's fighting forces.

Therefore, proponents of universal military training are proposing what they call a pilot system of "voluntary" universal military training. Under this proposal 60,000 young men about to be drafted would be permitted to *volunteer* for universal military training for six months, after which they would serve the remaining 18 months of their regular terms in the armed services under Selective Service. This proposal is a contradiction on its very face. Universal military training is never "voluntary" in the slightest degree. Its most characteristic feature is that it is universal and compulsory. Those who propose the pilot scheme are obviously seeking to set up a dummy type of military training that they hope will be quite popular and will create a favorable impression among the people—thus leading the people to believe that

a system of universal compulsory peacetime military training would be the same thing. The so-called pilot plan would in fact be entirely different from a system of peacetime universal military training; there would be no similarity whatever. What makes the current proposal so obviously an effort to force UMT through on a subterfuge is the fact that, if the Defense Department wants to set up such a plan of training for 60,000 draftees or volunteers, it can go ahead and do so right now, without any special bill.

This effort to bring in universal peacetime military training by the back door, under pressure of present international tension, is disquieting, particularly at a time when our national leaders should be concentrating on effective defense. Right now we need a very strong military establishment, and we should permit nothing to stand in the way of maintaining such a military force. What we may need to do after the present period has passed we can and should decide at that time—not now. It is obvious that the proponents of universal military training are not willing to have this question considered on its merits. They take advantage of every opportunity to force the measure upon the people at a time when they think the public mind is filled with apprehension. They do not trust the decision of the American people when the people have an opportunity to consider the matter calmly and intelligently in an atmosphere of careful deliberation.

It is no accident that the American people have always rejected universal compulsory peacetime military training. History clearly reveals that our refusal to accept this system has been one of the most constructive forces in the development of our Nation.

The freedom which we enjoy in this Nation did not come by accident; it was largely won for us by our forefathers. They fought hard against great odds to free this Nation, and we are enjoying the fruits of their struggles. Anyone who reads the pages of American history will discover that these very forebears who fought for our freedom were bitterly opposed to any form of compulsory military training in peacetime. They considered it as one of the earmarks of tyrannical government. Hundreds of thousands of our early patriots came to this country to escape such tyranny and to establish here a Nation in which men could be free from such measures of oppression.

Without the handicap of compulsory peacetime military training, we have been able to attain unprecedented military strength. We have recently engaged in two great world wars in which the military power of the United States of America has been the determining factor leading to victory. Our enemies in both of these world wars have been nations that have practiced universal compulsory peacetime military training. If there were the slightest bid of validity in the arguments of those who favor universal military training, we would have lost World War I and World War II. Our enemies would have won, because they had had universal military training for generations.

The plain truth is that the military strength of the United States rests on a much deeper and broader and more solid foundation. The military might of this Nation derives primarily from our tremendous industrial production, our great agricultural output, our enormous financial resources, the greatly superior knowledge and abilities of the masses of our people, and, above all, the unforced patriotism of free men. Every one of these elements would be weakened by a system of universal compulsory peacetime military training. If we should disrupt the life and development of every boy in the country for eight years of military service in peacetime, we would retard the strength of our Nation in industrial production, in agricultural output, in financial resources, in knowledge and abilities, and in independence of personality. Those who want to take six months for initial training plus many later stretches of compulsory training spanning eight years of the life of each boy in peacetime are not only proposing to disrupt the life and education of that boy; they are urging us to undermine the very strength of the Nation.

Let us take just one illustration. The Office of Naval Research recently sponsored an exhaustive study of Ph.D.'s in the fields of science. A competent staff of researchers worked on this problem for more than two years, with unlimited resources at their command for ascertaining the facts. They concluded that the interruption of education in World War II had set this country back to the extent of 10,000 Ph.D.'s. We can and do accept such a setback in a period of actual warfare. There is probably nothing that could happen internally that would weaken our country as much as doing this sort of thing as a regular peacetime policy. The wartime loss of 10,000 Ph.D.'s will never be recovered. It is a permanent weakening of the country. Just one of those lost Ph.D.'s might have been the conqueror of cancer or the discoverer of a successful defense against the atomic bomb. If we add together the Ph.D.'s and the Master's Degree holders and the Bachelor's Degree holders and the high-school graduates who would fall by the wayside in one generation as a result of universal peacetime military training, we would reduce even the military strength of the United States to an extent greater than could be recovered by a thousand years of compulsory peacetime military training. It would be sheer folly to adopt a permanent policy of undermining the future of the United States in any such fashion.

We would be foolish today if we were to assume that there is no danger of war with Russia. Present-day events indicate that it may be just a matter of time until the event comes. There are those who are sanguine enough to believe that the world communist leadership will respond to reason and tolerance and decency. I do not think they will ever do so. I have come reluctantly to the conclusion that the only language they understand is the language of force; that military defeat leading to internal revolution is the most likely way to destroy the monster of communist aggression centering in the Kremlin.

If that war comes, the chips will be down. The stakes will include everything we believe in: the independence of our country, the freedom of our institutions, the dignity of the human being, the fundamentals of Western civilization, even our very lives and homes. We would have to win it. We dare not take the slightest chance on losing that war. Verily it would be the Armageddon of civilization.

We do not know when or whether such a war will come. It could come within the next two or three years, although that is not likely. What is more likely is that the Russian dictators will continue to extend and consolidate their control over as much of the resources of the world as possible before they will force us into war. In the meantime their hope is that the United States will be weakened gradually from within by a dissipation of our financial, industrial, technological, scientific, educational, and spiritual strength. So long as we maintain the fundamental strength of the United States, we are certain to win the ultimate victory in any war with Russia. On the other hand, if we permit the weakening of our financial structure, our industrial system, our scientific and technological progress, or our educational system which produces all of these things, we shall be in danger of defeat.

If the all-out war with Russia comes, it is certain that we shall do what we had to do in World Wars I and II: develop a wholly new system and procedure of warfare. In an historic appearance before the select Committee on Postwar Military Policy of the United States of the House of Representatives in 1945, Josephus Daniels, one of the greatest Secretaries of the Navy in the history of our country, said that the first thing that has to be done to prepare for modern war is to unlearn the strategies and methods of previous wars. One sure result of a universal military training program as a peacetime policy would be to crystallize our military methods and strategy into a fixed pattern, thus making the adjustment to new methods ever more difficult. It is a natural tendency of our generals and admirals to follow fixed ideas and concepts, anyway. May I quote the February, 1952, issue of *Fortune Magazine*, from an article on "The U. S. Military Mind":

American generals and admirals probably enjoy as complete freedom as military men anywhere in the world. . . . But for all the scope given them, the U. S. Military have often shown rigidity and downright conservatism in tactics. . . . Along with this goes the belief that neat, simple solutions can be found for infinitely complex problems.

In the forthcoming war with Russia, the United States and her allies will not have the slightest chance to win if the test of strength is in terms of the number of men and kind of training that can be provided with the most complete system of universal military training ever envisioned. On that basis, Russia and her satellite nations would be far ahead of us at every turn. For us to plan our defense with such methods would simply put us at the mercy of Russia. We will win against Russia and her allies in the same way that we have won every

war: by throwing into the war emergency the total civilian strength of this mighty Nation. We would do well to remember that our career military leaders have never won any war for us; our civilians and our military nonentities have forged out the victories. This is not accidental. We have always refused to militarize our people, and as free men they have cultivated abilities and resources far beyond the possibility of achievement in a militaristic nation. If we maintain our freedom, give our educational system an opportunity to render its full service, give our industrial system an opportunity to grow stronger and more productive, preserve intact the free ways of free men in our free country, we shall be able to put on the battlefields of the world such military strength as the Russian dictators have never imagined.

A system of universal compulsory military peacetime training, however, would eat at the very vitals of our national strength, and thus undermine even our military strength. No nation in the history of the world has ever practiced universal peacetime military training such as is proposed for this country and retained the strength of its free institutions. Thus by adopting a universal peacetime military training for the purpose of defending ourselves we would, in fact, as Madison pointed out more than a hundred years ago, be risking our own enslavement.

It is a patriotic, ennobling experience to serve in the armed forces of the United States when the Nation is at war or is threatened with war. To put on the uniform of the country at such a time and give everything one has—even his life if necessary—is one of the privileges and responsibilities of a free man. To forced be into a period of military training in a period of prolonged peace has just the reverse effect upon an individual. The whole philosophy of such a system tends to destroy the freedom of the young man. One of the principal arguments for UMT is the claim that in peacetime it will provide excellent discipline for young men. Well do I remember just before World War II that the critics were loudly proclaiming that our young men were too soft, too weak, too undisciplined to fight effectively for their country. They were referred to in derision as a generation of undisciplined jitterbuggers. They have been permitted too much freedom to have their own ideas and aspirations; such people did not make good soldiers it was claimed. You remember these criticisms of our young people before the fateful days of Pearl Harbor. With the story of the heroism of these very boys written in blood on a hundred battlefields over the face of the earth, do I need to cite further evidence that the critics were wrong? These boys, derided and criticized, became the most valiant and resourceful soldiers this Nation has ever called to arms. The very fact that they were individuals, that each was capable of thinking for himself, that they had many benefits of a free education—these were the reasons they made such good soldiers.

Let's look on the other hand at a nation that had practiced universal military training for many generations: France. Every man in

France, except a few cripples, had been forced to serve at least two years in the army of that country. Our generals and military experts said in 1938 that France had the greatest army on earth; the French Army would soon destroy Hitler and his panzer units. That very system of universal military training and service on which the French relied for their defense had literally debilitated the democracy of France from within. Frenchmen had been made into trained soldiers all right, but they had lost the resoluteness and moral strength of free men. The most inglorious days of France since the birth of the Republic were those sad days of World War II when the armies of France wilted away, not because of the power and might of the Germans, but because of the inner weakness of the French themselves. You will remember that Germany had been forced to give up universal military training by the Treaty of Versailles. Thus the Germans, by force of circumstances, developed a totally new system of warfare against which the mighty armies of France were helpless.

The thing I am trying to point out here is that no nation can remain free if it subjects its peacetime population to a system of militarization. It has never been done anywhere else, and it would be stupid for us to assume that the results would be any different here.

The very essence of democracy is found in the fact that each individual is free to develop his own personality, his own ideas, his own abilities, his own skills to the very limit of his capacity. There is only one possible way to produce this and that is to provide a free system of education that carries every young person to the highest level of achievement of which he is capable. This is the secret of the greatness of the United States. Educational opportunity, open wide to all the children of all the people, is not only the birthright of the individual in America. It is also the root of our strength and might as a nation.

The effect of a system of universal peacetime military training upon the education of our young people would be devastating. Suppose every young man (and remember we are talking about peacetime) should be required at the age of 18 or thereabouts to spend six months in a military unit and then continue systematically with further periods of military training for a total of eight years. Such disruption of the lives of these young men would inevitably reduce college attendance very substantially. An inevitable result would be fewer engineers, fewer physicians, fewer dentists, fewer teachers, fewer scientists, fewer trained diplomats. It would inevitably mean a smaller number of trained people in every field of human affairs except the narrow field of the military establishment itself. The effect upon the development of our Nation and the achievement of our destiny would be tragic. When the Nation is at war, there is no alternative. Our education must suffer during such a period. Our only hope is that we may be able in peacetime to redouble our efforts, strengthen our education, and make up for

the huge losses that cannot be avoided in a war period. In peacetime, we dare not permit such an undermining of our education, because it is a fatal undermining of our Nation. For example, we must exert every effort in peacetime to make up for the enormous deficiency of Ph.D.'s caused by World War II. We must make up our deficiencies in the education of doctors, engineers, and teachers.

In view of these facts, it is not surprising that every major organization in the fields of agriculture, labor, education, and religion is vigorously opposed to a system of compulsory peacetime military training.

In a recent meeting in Washington, the Association of American Colleges by an overwhelming vote passed a resolution flatly and vigorously opposing the adoption of universal military training. At the same time this Association, representing higher education in the United States, gave all-out support to Selective Service and a full program of national security. That resolution, which resulted from long and careful deliberation, is a very clear statement of the position which in my opinion educational bodies throughout the Nation should support, and I quote the resolution in part:

Recognizing the continuing crisis through which civilization is passing, the Association of American Colleges at its thirty-eighth annual session pledges anew its support of all measures necessary to maintain a free and democratic world.

Currently, military security demands that we place great emphasis upon preparation for work in technological fields, upon constant planning for industrial mobilization, and upon the unending improvement of weapons and military methods. We recognize the military policy must provide for swift adjustments between periods of acute crisis which demand large standing forces and periods of relative calm which require smaller standing forces, but a large trained and ready reserve....

We are...concerned over the pending proposal to establish a National Security Training Corps which would permanently provide, even in peaceful times, a compulsory universal military training program.

Since the Selective Service program appears to meet our present demands for military forces and since the inauguration of UMT at this time would actually detract from the supply of available manpower (one 'overhead person' being needed under UMT for each two trainees), we are strongly opposed to this legislation, on the basis that it is both unnecessary and undesirable. When and if more stable world conditions are established, ample opportunity can be provided for full discussion of whether or not UMT has any place in a long-range program of national security. Currently to embark upon a program of UMT, essentially a permanent peacetime measure, rather than to invest our time, thought, and effort on behalf of immediate military demands and on behalf of those developments of a nonmilitary character which offer greatest hope of permanent peace is to dissipate energy and to court national disaster.

We cannot fail to point out that UMT as a permanent policy is likely to be fantastically expensive, educationally undesirable, morally hazardous, and politically dangerous. Only the complete failure of all other measures designed to secure the peace could justify serious consideration of UMT. Until

it becomes obvious that these other nonmilitary measures are fruitless, we urge their complete support and at the same time urge Congress to defeat the present bill authorizing the establishment of a National Security Training Corps.

Sixth General Session

Monday, February 18, 8:30 P. M., Hall of Mirrors

Presiding: W. L. Spencer, Professor of Secondary Education, Huntingdon College, Montgomery, Alabama; Past President, and Member, Executive Committee, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Junior Town Meeting

What Is the Best Approach to Peace?

Introductory remarks by the moderator, *George Brengel*, Junior Town Meeting, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Students participating in the meeting were: *Alvin Cohn*, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; *Mary Lou Gebring*, Seton High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; *Carol Taube*, Walnut Hills High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; and *Powell Woodward*, Wyoming High School, Wyoming, Ohio.

Following the Junior Town Meeting program the West High Rope Twirlers composed of students of the West Junior-Senior High School, Columbus, Ohio, enrollment, 2,271; *E. T. Stone*, Faculty Advisor-Coach; *Irvin F. Young*, Principal and the Hamilton Hi Fliptwisters composed of students of Hamilton High School, Hamilton, Ohio, enrollment, 1,500; *James W. Grimm*, Director, Health Physical Education, and Recreation; *John O. Fry*, Principal presented short programs that captivated the audience.

THE U. S. MARINE CORPS INSTITUTE

The U. S. Marine Corps Institute, Navy Department, Marine Barracks, Washington 25, D. C., has available for posting two large posters (17" x 22") entitled "Your Strength for the Future—Education" and "Sell Your Ideas—Creative Writing Courses." The Institute also publishes a small news magazine entitled *The MCI News*. While these posters and the *MCI News* are prepared primarily for use on the Post to encourage marines to advance their education by taking courses offered by the Institute, they will also be helpful in giving the high-school boy an idea of educational opportunities available through the Marine Corps Institute.

Seventh General Session

Tuesday, February 19, 9:30 A. M., Hall of Mirrors

Presiding: Harold B. Brooks, Principal, Benjamin Franklin Junior High School, Long Beach, California; First Vice President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Invocation by The Rev. Robert A. Byler, Pastor, First Methodist Church, Hamilton, Ohio.

Music by the Withrow High School Choir, Cincinnati, Ohio; enrollment, 3,120; Ansel C. Martin, Director; A. O. Mathias, Principal.

Addresses:

The Honorable Brook Hays, a member of the United States Congress from Arkansas, gave an interesting and informative address on the subject, "Building A Faith for Today's World." As he submitted no paper, his address is not included in these proceedings.

CIVIL DEFENSE

CLYDE W. MEREDITH

IT is no longer a question whether or not we shall teach civil defense but rather one of how and to what extent it shall be taught in our schools. Concepts of civil defense now form a part of our way of life, made necessary by the persistent international tensions and the knowledge of atomic warfare now held by our enemies.

In any future large-scale war, the whole world would become a battlefield. Americans for the first time must realistically consider the possibility of their front yards as a part of the battlefield. As a leading power, our nation would be unavoidably involved, both as a participant in open hostilities and as a part of vulnerable territory.

Facing up to the military's request for a civil defense organization, the Congress enacted a law that brought the Federal Civil Defense Administration into being. The problem confronting our teachers now pertains to the role they are to play in order to assure our young citizens an adequate preparation for the responsibilities this age has thrust upon them. As has been the case heretofore, the teacher has been forced into a most important responsibility. In order to discharge that responsibility, the demands are upon him to interpret a most complex situation and give the necessary guidance to cope with the demands of a new age in its way of life. The Federal Civil Defense Ad-

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ministration has been shouldered with the responsibility of providing guidance and consultative services to the schools as they develop their civil defense programs.

You will be interested in a report of a workshop in civil defense conducted recently at the Staff College which is operated under the direction of the Training and Education Office of the Federal Civil Defense Administration at Olney, Maryland. The FCDA contracted the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, through its Executive Secretary, Dr. Paul E. Elicker, to bring into the college thirty educators from six different affiliate organizations of the National Education Association for a period of one week. The contract specified that these educators become acquainted with the general policies, principles, and objectives of the FCDA and that they in turn provide an analysis of the problems faced by the schools in the area of civil defense education. They were to provide criteria for school administration and instruction in civil defense. These thirty educators represented, along with the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the following affiliate organizations of the NEA: the Department of Elementary-School Principals, the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, the National Council for the Social Studies, the National Science Teachers Association and the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

Dr. Elicker and the secretaries of these affiliate organizations are to be commended for the very excellent work they performed in selecting outstanding educators in their respective fields to come into Staff College and, likewise, for the very satisfactory performance of the contractual agreements. The reports of these groups have not yet been evaluated by the agency but we feel sure that our next interest will be that of devising ways and means of fanning out to the schools of the country the resource materials on civil defense which this group produced. Members of this organization will be interested doubtless in sections on civil defense which may be introduced in various workshops during the coming summer. We are well on the way toward our goal of introducing civil defense, both in its emergency phase and in its long-range view, into the schools of the nation. Such adequate civil defense planning may be the deciding deterrent to war.

AT HOME IN ONE WORLD

JOHN H. FURBAY

I HAVE been asked to discuss the educational implications of the Air Age. First, let us consider what the Air Age is and what it is doing

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to our world—to that world into which today's students will have to fit themselves.

Recently, while coming into Chicago on a plane from Paris, I met a business man. We hardly got acquainted on the plane; it was a very short trip—but we had a lot of time to get acquainted going downtown from the airport in a limousine. Those of you who have been in Chicago will appreciate that it is easier to go to Paris than it is to get to the airport.

In the course of our conversation, I said, "You got on in Paris this morning. What kind of business do you do?" He said, "I'm setting up branches of our business over there, covering Europe, the Middle East, and North Africa now." Then he told me a very interesting story.

He said, "My grandfather established his business in Chicago. It was his life's ambition to cover the State of Illinois with his products. He worked very hard, lived and died, but he saw his ambition achieved. He had set up branches of his business in every county in Illinois. Then, my father took over the business. He made it his life's ambition to put branches of the business in every state in the union. My father worked very hard and he achieved his life's goal. Now I am the third generation in the family business."

I said, "It isn't too hard to see what your life's ambition is, but tell me one thing more. How long do you think it is going to take you to cover the world?"

"Well," he said, "we figure on ten years. Already we have put our business in fourteen new countries since the end of hostilities and we think it will take about ten years to cover the world." After reflecting on his statement for a moment I continued, "Tell me one thing more: of these three generations, who do you think had the toughest job anyway? Was it your grandfather, to do Illinois; your father to do the whole United States; or you, to do the world?"

"My grandfather," he replied, "had the toughest job by far. Look how he had to travel most of his life with a horse and buggy, carrying a sack of hay in the back for the horse, and a cold sandwich in his pocket for himself. Sometimes his fingers, his nose, his ears, or his toes were frostbitten. The hardships he went through, you and I will never know. By the time my father came along, there was better transportation. The railroads had come through, then there came automobiles and highways, and he covered the United States about as easily as my grandfather had covered the counties of Illinois."

"I can't see that I have a very tough job," he continued. "After all, you and I got on this plane in Paris this morning after we had our breakfast, didn't we? It was a very early breakfast, just at the creak of dawn. But we didn't have a cold sandwich for lunch; instead, we had a delicious hot dinner served over the North Atlantic by a beautiful hostess on the plane. And here we are back in Chicago where I can

sleep in my own bed tonight. My grandfather used to be gone three whole months sometimes, without going out of Illinois. I was on the other side of the world this morning and I am back to my own home tonight."

Well, ladies and gentlemen, you and I are teaching students who are children of the Air Age. Yet, I wonder sometimes if some of the things we are teaching don't still belong to the horse and buggy days, rather than to the Air Age? I sometimes wonder if science and technology haven't far outstripped the development of ideas in other fields—particularly the social sciences? The biggest job we have in education today is to find out how we can all get along together, now that we have shrunk the world are living side by side with peoples who used to be far away in time. The boys and girls in school today are going to have to take their places in a very different world from what grandfather lived in. They will need a different kind of preparation, and they will have to know more about a number of things.

Now, I want to talk about some of those things which will prepare the children who are in school today to take their places in this kind of world we call a *Global World*. But, first, I want to tell another story just to show you how small the world has become. Recently I went to a dinner in San Francisco. It was a six-course dinner put on at the Commercial Club to show how close the whole world is today to San Francisco. Six airlines serve San Francisco and each of the six courses was flown in by a different airline from a different part of the world for that dinner. The first course was fresh pineapple plucked in the gardens of Hawaii that morning. And there flowed at our dinner table that night, wine just in from Spain. Six courses from six different parts of the world, and all were foods not produced in San Francisco. The chairman of the meeting said, "We have given a demonstration tonight of the fact that the whole world is now in the back yard of San Francisco." I don't know that we should say it is all in the back yard of San Francisco any more than it is in the back yard or front yard of Albuquerque or Denver or Pittsburgh. Not only are the gardens of the world, with all their delicious foods in our back yards, but so are, also, all of the problems of the world in our back yards, which means forever the end of even the slightest idea of isolationism on the part of Americans. There is not a living soul in the world who lives more than forty hours, by air, from where you and I are at this moment. How small the world has become.

I was up in New England recently and I noticed so many signs on houses reading, "George Washington Slept Here." I saw so many houses in which George Washington slept that I began to wonder about George Washington. As a matter of fact, I even toyed with the idea that maybe he had sleeping sickness. Then I read a statement which cleared it all up for me: The fastest Washington ever made the trip from New York to Boston was two weeks by the fastest transportation avail-

able at the command of the President of the United States. That made fourteen nights he had had to sleep going up and fourteen more coming back. No wonder he slept at so many different places. And I mused, "What would Washington think if he could come back today and take the trip from New York to Boston. Business men get up in New York and fly to Boston before the stores open. They do it every day.

Then I let my imagination continue: What if Washington came back to visit the White House; wouldn't he be a surprised man? Suppose if he visited Mr. Truman that after lunch one day Mr. Truman would say, "Mr. Washington, I have a few hours' work to do in the office and then how would you like to take a little run with me this afternoon? Mr. Washington might say, "What is in your mind, Mr. Truman?" "Well," says Mr. Truman, "Mr. Washington, I thought we might fly out to Kansas City for dinner." Mr. Washington would probably say, "Kansas City, Missouri, out by the Missouri River? I don't believe it. It's impossible." Mr. Truman comments, "I go out every once in a while. I used to go out to see my mother frequently when she was living." So they get in the plane and start west, and on the way out Mr. Washington says, "Mr. Truman, while I was President of the United States, if I had ever gone to Kansas City, Missouri, my whole term of office would have expired before I got back."

That imaginative conversation shows how the world has changed. You and I are not teaching school in the time of George Washington. Ours is quite a different kind of world and I wonder if we are preparing the children of today for this new kind of world? It is a Global World in which we have all become just one big neighborhood. We shall either become good neighbors or we shall use our modern inventions to destroy the whole global neighborhood.

Our military men tell us they now have airplanes capable of leaving our soil, flying to any civilized capital of the world, dropping their load of atomic bombs, destroying the whole city, and returning to the United States without ever stopping. No other generation of people has ever lived in a world that small since creation. To prepare boys and girls to live in that kind of world is not the same thing that it was when it took two weeks to go from New York to Boston. It means we can stand on our "front porch" of the United States and hurl stones in the front windows of all our neighbors in the world without setting foot on their properties. It means, also, that the others can smash our windows, too.

But wouldn't it be a much more sensible plan, now that we have become one community, to get acquainted and build a community program of improvements and benefits for everybody in that community? And instead of throwing stones at each other's front windows, like a bunch of bad boys—only it is atomic bombs now instead of stones—shouldn't we learn to pick up those stones and build swimming pools and parks, and develop a community that is good for all of us? That is the only way we can avoid war and destruction. Anybody who has

had anything to do with juvenile delinquency knows that all you have to do with a bunch of bad boys is to get them together on a good project and they are no longer bad boys. So, why not work on our Global delinquency problem and see if we can't turn this energy to constructive uses.

But you say, "That fellow over there speaks a strange language," and "I don't like that fellow over here, his skin is a little different shade from ours," or "I don't like this other fellow, he doesn't go to my church," or "Here is another whose politics are not the same as ours." Yet, there are many problems to solve and many differences to be reconciled, but this is the task of our age.

In such a Global World, we need a new kind of teaching, a new approach to geography and a broader vision in all the social sciences. Ninety-nine out of a hundred people believe the earth is flat. Of course they were taught in school that the earth is round, but in our geography books which the printed pages said the earth was round, the map directly opposite the printed page said the earth was flat. They forgot what was on the printed pages, but they remembered the maps. If you ask even the most simple questions about navigation—how to go from one point to another point on the earth you will get a flat-earth answer in nearly every case.

Ask the first ten people you see any simple question of navigation; ask them how they would go from where they are to some distant point; and you'll find that nearly all believe the earth is flat. If you ask them the shortest route from Chicago to Paris, they will probably say to go to New York or Philadelphia and on east across the Atlantic to Paris. One would go this way, if the earth were flat, but it isn't the way to go on a global earth. If you take off from Chicago by air, you go north by northeast right into Paris passing nowhere near New York, not even Maine.

Suppose you ask ten people how to go from St. Louis to China? They all would probably say, "Well, I guess I would go west to California, then to Hawaii, and from there on west to China." Yes, you might go that way if you wanted to go a thousand miles out of your way; or to take a long vacation trip. But while we were trying to win the war we learned a much shorter way: to leave the U.S.A. at Minneapolis and to go north by northwest into China, not going near California, Washington or Oregon. Also we learned to go northward from China right back into Minneapolis. That is the world of the new Air Age. The new routes of the world today are moving northward and we need a new kind of geography for this Air World—a Global Geography.

Since the major populations of the world live north of the equator, the shortest connections between them and the United States go north by air. It is north to Europe, north to the Middle East, north to the Orient from the United States. And north back to the United States from the Orient, from the Middle East, and from Europe. Horace Greeley's famous advice: "Go west, young man, go west," is in for a revision.

Many new towns and cities are springing up on these new northward routes just as they sprang up along the railroads when they were developing and offering new territories. I stood in a town not long ago where there was not a living person ten years ago. Today, it is a thriving, coming young city. Why? Because it is on one of those new global air routes which are going north, just as the railroads stretched east and west.

There is another aspect of these new routes too. Just as the peaceful commerce and travel of the world are moving north, so also it is a certain fact that if we get into another war, the attack will come over the top of the world from the north. Military circles no more expect that a war will come across the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by ship from the east or west. If atomic bombs come at the United States they will come over the top of the world. That is one reason why we are cementing close relations with Canada and spending money to build air fields and navigations aids inside the Arctic Circle. We must be prepared to meet attacks from the north. General Eisenhower recently warned that in the next war the enemy would come by air, striking suddenly the major cities along the north part of the United States. The outcome of such a war could be decided in two weeks. There would be no time in that kind of war for us to catch up while somebody else takes it on the chin. We will all have to recognize that these are vital factors in the world in which our boys and girls are going to grow up. Let's hope and pray there will not be another war, but we might as well know from what direction it will come if it happens.

This new geography has given us not only new directions but also a new size to the earth. I wouldn't have believed how small the world has become but for an experience I had last year going over to Europe. We had breakfast in New York, lunch over the north Atlantic and dinner in Ireland. Then, after I got off the plane, I played nine holes of golf before it was dark—all in one day. Some of you in the audience have had similar experiences which have impressed you with how small the world is now, and how close to us are the problems of the peoples in it.

Out in Liberia, West Africa, where I once spent three years in educational service, we had three dreaded diseases—malaria, sleeping sickness, and yellow fever—all carried by mosquitoes or tsetse flies. They used to be regarded as tropical diseases to be found only in tropical areas. Now they are diseases which concern us right here because airplanes flying across the south Atlantic to South America and on up here. Those diseases no longer are staying where they are supposed to. For even mosquitoes have taken to flying in airplanes. Why, before the Air Age arrived, a mosquito could never get more than a mile away from home. Now they are flying all over the world.

Consequently, we have found that the swamps undrained in West Africa are a vital public health problem to the people of Chicago, Albuquerque, San Francisco, and Middletown. We are sending our money

and men out to West Africa now, for draining the swamps that are breeding mosquitoes. Why? Because those swamps and mosquitoes are now in our backyards. The world has become one big neighborhood. We can no longer say that any part of the world in which there is disease, poverty, or suffering is none of our business. They are our business; and if we don't bring up a generation of young people to feel that the world's problems are *our* problems, then we shall go on to the same old thing—another war and another, I suppose, so long as we can stand it or until we are all finished and destroyed from the face of the earth. But I don't feel that this is the intelligent way to go about it.

If we are to understand and participate in a global world, we should be able to talk to our Global neighbors. We Americans have been one of the most handicapped nations on the face of the entire earth, linguistically; in fact, we are the only important nation the face of the earth whose educated people speak only one language. At every United Nations meeting I have attended or known about, the American delegates have usually been the ones who could talk in only one language; while many of the other delegates were speaking several languages fluently. People sometimes ask, "How does it happen that most educated Americans speak only their mother tongue?" We don't even have to go to school or have any education to talk that. We were all speaking our mother tongue before we had started to school. The necessity of talking more than one language is so great that I would make this prediction: that you and I are the last generation who will dare to stand up and say we are educated if we speak only one language.

I recently read in an educational magazine (so-called educational) an article about certain areas of the United States where, the author said, there are towns having the "problem of bi-lingualism." Think of it—a problem—two languages. That is the kind of "problem" we ought to have in the whole United States. While we suffer from language deficiency, this author was lamenting the fact that down in New Mexico the people speak two languages. The only thing to lament is that they don't speak three instead of two.

If we ever become linguists we shall have to begin the study of languages down in the elementary grades. That is where language belongs, and is most natural. We are the only important country in the world that begins its foreign languages in high school. Other countries begin them in the elementary grades. And they learn to speak pretty well.

What are the languages we shall need to learn? The United Nations has set the world pattern—English, French, Spanish, Russian, Chinese—five official languages. The business of the world is pretty likely to be transacted in these five tongues. You say, "I know I can't learn Chinese." Why can't you learn Chinese? The Chinese all learn it, don't they? The first time I ever heard a Chinaman call a dog, he was calling the dog in Chinese. Even the dog had learned

it. We haven't tried to learn languages, we Americans. That is the problem with us. We say we can't before we start and we Americans, of all the people in the world, are supposed not to know the word "can't."

We shall also have to know much more about the *peoples* of the world who are now our global neighbors. The social sciences will have to include a great deal more of honest-to-God anthropology. The study of human beings is one of the weakest spots in our social sciences. One of the toughest problems in getting along with our global neighbors right now is our abundance of prejudices and false ideas about other peoples of the world.

If you take the first ten people you meet in the street, and ask them ten questions on the subject of the races of mankind, I'll guarantee that nine out of ten answers will be either ignorance, superstition, or prejudices. The man-in-the-street still thinks there are five races in the world; but no anthropologist ever classified mankind into five races. The man-in-the-street will talk about a Red race, but you who know the Indians know they are not red. The man-in-the-street still talks about a Yellow race; but no anthropologist believes there is a Yellow race. What are called the Red and Yellow races are only shades of brown, of course.

On the question of race, the average man thinks also that the White race dominates the world, just because it does the U.S.A., little realizing that the White race is a minority group in a world of colored skins. One of the first things I had to learn when I started traveling over the world was that what one thinks about race in the United States doesn't usually hold outside the United States. Let's spread out the peoples of the world in front of us, horizontally. (Don't ever spread them vertically—with somebody at the top and somebody at the bottom.) Over at one end is a small minority group, the White race. (It isn't a "race," actually—the White "variety," we will say.) Then if we go over to the other end we have another small minority, which we call the Black race, Negroes, which are not a "race" either, but the black variety. Actually, we are all one race—the human race—as every anthropologist knows. There are various varieties of the human family, but they are not considered separate races. Different categories of man are classified not only according to skin color, but also shape of the nose, movements of the head, and so on. But they are not separate races. Scientists know we all have the same blood stream. When the war came along and blood banks were set up, medical doctors said, "It doesn't make a bit of difference from whom the blood is taken—just so the people are healthy. There are just four types of blood: A, B, C, and D, and they are found in all people. And there probably wasn't a single boy dying from loss of blood on the battlefield who, when blood was offered to save his life, questioned the color of the donor. It was only the people who sat at home and never saw war who worried about things like that.

Here is the human race; a small White "race" over here, a small Negro "race" over there—both minority groups in a brown world. What we call the "race problem" in the United States is merely a local issue between two minority groups, and misses completely the major portion of the world's population. Any idea that solving the race problem goes no further than teaching your minority groups to get along together certainly is by-passing the great multitude of the world's population, which is neither white nor black, but *brown*. There are four hundred million of them in India alone. They are in China, Japan, Korea, all through the Middle East and in Latin America.

Some would say it doesn't matter much what we think about all these other peoples. When I grew up in Ohio where my family had lived six or seven generations, I thought the world was divided into only two classes of people: Americans and foreigners. It wouldn't have mattered much who the foreigners were; we put them down in our minds as inferior. Such an attitude is childish. I don't know why we should be the one country in the whole world in which it is a disgrace to admit you came here as a foreigner or that your parents were foreign-born, when every last one of us is descended from an immigrant. Our ancestors were all foreigners when they got here, except the Indians. They are the ones who should have prejudices if anybody should.

These prejudices are responsible for the fact that we Americans have lost our languages. We make a boy in the street ashamed to speak the language his father and mother brought to this country with them. I would say to every boy and girl in the United States, "If your father and mother know another language, learn it alongside our beautiful mother tongue, English. It may be the best thing your father and mother will ever be able to give you. Cherish it. Keep it up. You will need it. Don't be ashamed of it."

Do we want to know what the world is like? Prejudice is the thing which separates people and makes them hate each other. Charles Lamb once met a man who said to him, "You see that man across the street? Well, I hate that man." "You hate that man? Did you ever meet him?" "No, never." "Why do you hate him then?" "Because I don't know him." That is the crux of the whole matter. We have thought of people we didn't know as a bunch of foreigners that lived on the other side of the world. But now they are our next door neighbors.

Prejudice! This gets us into some strange and pathetic situations I was down in the Caribbean for a while during the war. Some of the boys in the Army had a terrible time with this racial business. It was easy enough in the United States, but outside they were all mixed up, because their education hadn't prepared them for what they met in the rest of the world. They were planning a U.S.O. dance and were trying to decide whom to invite to the dance when one boy said, "Well, we're not going to invite anybody who isn't white." Another boy replied, "Say, who in the world is white down here?" "I'm all mixed up, I

don't know," came from another; "back in the states I could tell." Another boy spoke up on the subject and he said they must devise a way to tell the whites from the non-whites. (The pity of it was that they still thought it made a difference!) Most of the people there were brown, and the boys wanted to invite them; yet this prejudice raised many questions for them. Finally they decided nobody could come who wasn't white, but they had to set up a definition of *who was* white. So they got a paper bag and they tied it by the door. Then they put an MP at the door with these instructions: "Look, old fellow, you've got the job of deciding on the color of everybody who comes to this dance tonight. You take a good look at each face, and if it is as light as this bag, let him in, he is white. And if his face is darker than the brown paper bag, shut him out—he ain't white!" Imagine the state of our knowledge regarding other peoples of the world when we have to hunt up a brown paper bag to tell what race they belong to! These things wouldn't matter so much if they didn't hurt people. But people all have feelings; and when people are hurt, they learn to hate.

When I lived in West Africa, I belonged to a club called the "White Man's Athletic Club." There was also in that town—it was a Negro republic—a "Negro Athletic Club." The White men's club and the Negro club were well-established when there came to town quite a colony of Syrians, light-brown-skinned people. Nobody knew exactly where to place the Syrians, racially—for we could not only think in terms of "white" and "black." We still hadn't got the idea in our minds that most people are *in between*. Well, the Syrians applied for membership in the White men's club. I happened to be an officer at that time of the club. The club took a vote and told the Syrians, "Gentlemen, our constitution says only members of the White race can become members of the Club. We are sorry we can't admit you as you are not of the White race." The Syrians then applied for membership in the Negro club, which considered their request and sent the following reply: "Gentlemen, we appreciate the honor you have given us in wanting to become members of our club. But the Constitution of our club says that only members of the colored race can become members of our club and you are all white people!" Well, the poor Syrians were a lovely shade of brown but nobody wanted them. So they went out and built an athletic club of their own. The three clubs are still there—evidence of the stupidity of all of us, and when we join each other at the gate of St. Peter, one of the things I shall be most ashamed of will be that I was an officer in that White men's club when all this happened—because who are the Syrians? Where did they come from? They came from that very part of the world where Jesus Christ was born—and undoubtedly had the same shade of complexion that He had. And if Jesus Christ had been a member of the Syrian colony in Liberia, He would have been shut out of our club and told he was too dark skinned. Yet, every member of that White men's club came from a Christian country!

Now, prejudice is not inherited. It is something that is taught. I don't know that it has ever actually been taught in school; but perhaps in school we haven't done enough to counteract what was taught *outside* of school. Why don't we teach the truth about races of the world, and not teach that there is one superior race and many inferior races? There are superior people and inferior people in *each* race or group, and no matter what you have heard to the contrary, that is the whole story. Why don't we teach this to our children? Why don't we teach them that the white race has made many important contributions to the world, but not all the major contributions, by many means?

The white-skinned peoples of the world have contributed technology. We have produced the scientists, engineers, and medical leaders. We also produce deadly machines of war. But the peoples we have sometimes called inferior in the United States, the Negro group, they are the ones whose creative and original music has gone around the world known as American music: Negro spirituals and jazz. It is not the only American music, of course, but is the best known. White people dance to Negro music—why? Because it expresses something universal in all of us.

With Latin American rhythms it is the same story. From Cuba, where the Negro dominates, and from Brazil, we get the rumba, the samba, the conga.

Let's look at art. Where are you going to beat the great Indian artist, Diego Rivera? In Mexico, we also have Orozco; and in Brazil, the great master painter, Portinari. As a matter of fact, the creator of modern art, Picasso, when the world had gone stale and there were no new ideas, went into the middle of Africa and studied primitive African masks. When he returned to Paris he used the new ideas from Africa as the basis of what we call modern art.

Suppose it is philosophy we want; we go to the Orient. Here we find the great philosophers of the world. Are we philosophers? No, but we can build telephones. We can build machines. We push a button and have light—and that is a fine thing. We have invented the things that make living more comfortable. But the peoples who specialize in finding the "whys" of life are in the Orient. Did you ever think about it, that every great philosophy and every major religion of the world came out of the Orient? Even the Christian religion is an Oriental religion.

While we dominate in technology, life is a lot more than machines and gadgets. We need a little music and art and philosophy after we have made machines all day long. We like to go home and relax; maybe we want to dance—and we get our music from the Negroes. Maybe it is art we enjoy for relaxation—and we may get that from our good Indian friends. If we feel the need to philosophize and to be religious, we can get that out of the Orient.

What I am saying is that since the world has become small, there is an opportunity for us to show children in the classroom that here is the chance to build the greatest world that has ever been. Instead of building walls between ourselves and other peoples and saying, "You stay over there and make your music or art or philosophy, and we will stay over here and build machines," let's get together and share our talents. Let's make machines and bath tubs for the fellow who makes the philosophy and religion. We may give us something to think about while we are in the bath tub! He needs our bath tubs as much as we need his religion. We can't get along without any of them. If we approach it that way, we can show our children how to build a better world. A pianist doesn't make all of his music by playing just on the black keys, nor the white. He puts them together and makes better music than he could make with either one alone. I learned that from an African boy from the Gold Coast.

Let's have honesty and no apology in our curriculum, and let's prepare the children of today to appreciate and get along with the other peoples of the world. The United Nations are going to have to understand each other, too. If they don't, it is going to be tragic. In fact, we almost had a tragedy when we were organizing the United Nations. We had invited the peoples of the world to meet in San Francisco. When they got there, do you know what happened? The hotels wouldn't accept the colored delegates. Why? Because we Americans had not realized that the majority of the world is not of white skin. It was the United States which had invited these people here, and in order to avoid a most embarrassing situation, the government had to step in and take over major hotels in San Francisco, and operate them as government hostels during that first United Nations meeting. Why do I tell you this? Because you and I, as Americans, are supposed to lead the world, and the seat of the United Nations has been placed in our own country. Are we ready to lead the world? I'm not sure; but it is up to you as teachers of our children to produce a generation of children ready to take their places in one world and get along with everybody who lives in that world—on an absolutely equal basis. That is the biggest job of education today.

I'm going to close with a little story of a man who lived in Russia on the Polish border. There had always been some question about just where the boundary was so they were never quite sure whether they lived in Russia or Poland. One day the officials came down and re-surveyed the land, and they found the boundary went on the other side of the farm. The farmer was greatly excited and ran in to his wife, saying, "My dear, they have changed the boundary and we are no longer living in Russia; we are living in Poland." She replied, "I don't see what difference it makes." He said, "Oh, yes, it is better to live in Poland." She queried: "What do you mean? The house is still in the same place; the barn is in the same place; the fields are in the same

place; we still milk the cows in the same place and I still have to wash the dishes in the same place. What do you mean, it is better now that we live in Poland? Everything is exactly like it was before they changed the boundary." He said, "No, it isn't. Now that we are living in Poland, my dear, we won't have any more of those terrible Russian winters!"

Perhaps it is all in the way we look at things—all in our minds. You teachers are the people who will shape the minds of everybody coming up in the next generation. It is a big challenge. It is a wonderful opportunity, and let's develop "one world" thinking, so our swift planes will carry people whose minds are as global as the planes which carry them, people who are ready to make friends everywhere and never, never again will these planes have to carry atomic bombs. If we do this, these children will grow up to live in a better world than it has ever been before.

Thank you very much.

Eighth General Session

Tuesday, February 19, 8:30 P. M., Hall of Mirrors

Presiding: George L. Cleland, Principal, Ingalls Junior-Senior High School, Atchison, Kansas; Member, Executive Committee, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Chairman: Elmer W. Kizer, Principal, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; Chairman, Convention Committee.

A special program was presented by students with distinctive talents. This program was composed of selected acts from the annual variety shows given by the students of the high schools in Cincinnati under the direction of Merrill Van Pelt, Director of Instrumental Music, Cincinnati Public Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.

CURRENT EVENTS TEST

A special current events test, to be made available annually for spring testing, has been announced by Science Research Associates. This new instrument is designed to assess students' understanding of important news developments and their consequences. Publication of the first form was February, and a new, validated edition will be issued each future year at the same time. The test covers two areas: knowledge of social developments and knowledge of scientific developments. Special design advantages include re-usable booklets and inexpensive self-scoring carbon answer pads. A limited distribution of specimen copies will be made to educators concerned with social studies, contemporary affairs, or science. Address: Information Director, Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue, Chicago 10.

Ninth General Session

Wednesday, February 20, 2:15 P. M., Hall of Mirrors

Presiding: Joseph B. Chaplin, Principal, Bangor Senior High School, Bangor, Maine; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Invocation by The Rev. Lynn J. Radcliffe, Hyde Park Community Methodist Church, Hyde Park, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Music by the Highlands High School Chorus, Fort Thomas, Kentucky; enrollment, 480; Robert Knauf, Supervisor of Music, Fort Thomas Schools; Morris B. Cierley, Principal.

Following this, the new officers for the coming year were presented by Joseph B. Chaplin. The new President, Harold B. Brooks, was presented the gavel. President elect Brooks then presented a framed certificate to Joseph B. Chaplin in recognition of his meritorious service to the National Association during his term of office in 1951-1952.

The 36th Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was officially closed by the final address of the session by Jesse Stuart.

Address:

EDUCATION AND AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

JESSE STUART

ABOUT eighteen days ago I came to this city of Cincinnati. I want to tell you about it while you're here, while you are getting ready to leave. This is an unusual city. It is called the most conservative city in America. I don't know whether it is or not. But I came down here on an unusual program. I really didn't know what the program was about until I got here and had it explained to me. It was the only time in my life that I have ever spoken to a combination of public and parochial schools. It was called "The American Way." They held it in Cincinnati. It's the only city in the United States where I think they hold it and it is something I think you will hear of later. It is going to spread out of this city. It has never been publicized. After I heard those youngsters, went into their groups, and heard their discussions

Jesse Stuart is an author, poet, humorist, and lecturer from the hill country of Kentucky; he was formerly principal of a Greenup County, Kentucky, high school.

of their problems, their school problems, and of America's problems, I thought it was appropriately titled 'The American Way.'

Now to come here. I noticed one of the first faces I saw was a high-school principal I shall not forget. Incidentally, I have worked for him and he is a character in my book, *The Thread That Runs So True*. I didn't put his right name in it because I was afraid to. His name is Sherman Dale and I called him Grant Sherman in the book. He sits down here in front of me. He is one of the great principals, I think, of the country. I have to say it for him, because he sent me out the first time I ever gave a talk to a group of high-school teachers. He sent me to a high school in West Virginia and he told me to go take them. Those are the words he said. He put me on a bus.

Now my talk is Education in American Democracy. Let me tell you a little bit about what I know about both. First, we have got to go back to people. My father's people came from Scotland to this country. They came to Virginia. My mother's people came from Yorkshire, England, to North Carolina. Those people started migrating across America. They came into the river valley, the Big Sandy River. A lot of you don't know about that river but it is the river between Kentucky and West Virginia. I think it is one of the most colorful rivers in the world. During the first World War, in one county in that section, there wasn't a man drafted to fight. The Second World War they were drafted out of all the counties because I think they got a pretty good experience from World War I. Now the Russians say that the River Don is one of the most colorful rivers in the world. The greatest fighting men are the fighting Don Cossocks. But let me tell you about this Big Sandy River valley. You have heard of Harlan County and that region too, where they had four policemen in one year in one town. I heard someone laughing about it a while ago. Then a woman offered to take over and I think she would have gotten along all right; the Kentuckians would never have molested her. I feel sorry for those people because they are my people. If and when the United States and Russia ever tangle, let me tell you this, the men from that Big Sandy River valley will hold the Don Cossocks of Russia man for man as long as they last.

My grandfather Stuart came in there and one day Abraham Lincoln called for 75,000 volunteers to fight in the War. He enlisted in Lincoln's army. Though he was a Virginian he didn't believe in slavery; he didn't believe in dividing the country; he had ideas of his own. He fought four years through the war, was captured twice, hanged once, and came out a living man. My grandfather said the way to raise children was to jerk them up by the hair of the head. I don't know how much education my grandfather had. I know he was a wrestler in Grant's army; he weighed 240 pounds, six feet tall; he was muscular. He came back to this river valley. The Stuarts cut the trees of the Big Sandy River valley. They helped build the C & O Railroad there; they helped

build the bridges that span that river; they helped build the school-houses which they didn't attend. Then they fought with the McCoy's against the Hatfields and got the pants licked off of them. They were ready to leave the Big Sandy River valley. They went out of there faster than they ever came in. They left their dead behind them, some to them in unmarked graves. They went down into Greenup County, Kentucky. In the meantime, another family, the Hiltons, came down that river valley—a different family. Among them were religious leaders, school teachers, and my grandfather Hilton who was mustered out of the Confederate army at the age of fifteen. They came down from Greenup county and settled not far from the Stuarts. My Grandfather Stuart and Grandfather Hilton never visited one another in their lives. They disliked each other. But when their two children met, it was a whirlwind courtship. In something like six months, my mother and father were married. Granddad Hilton said, "My, my, look what my daughter, Martha, has done. She has married the son of a Union soldier and futher more, a Republican." My mother and father never got along on anything. Yes, they did, a few things. One was education for their children. My father always wanted a school teacher in our family. A school teacher was the only person on earth my father would bow to. And I wondered in the early days the way he preached education to us but I don't wonder now. We will come to that in just a few minutes.

There are ten houses in W Hallow where we still live today. The Stuarts have lived in eight of them. We lived in a place long enough to clean it up, fix it up, and then someone else wanted us. When we moved, we would dig up our apple trees and take them with us too, our peach trees and our shrubbery. We had a great love for these trees because we had dug them up from along side the road, had taken them in and had set them out on rented land. The first time when they got too big to take with us, my father said, when we started to dig them up, "The next time we will have land to set these trees on." That's some of American democracy that I know. But the big thing of American democracy was that little school that my father took me to at Plum Grove on a high hilltop where a man by the name of Calvin Clark age eighteen had finished high school, taught fifty-six classes in six hours. It was there that I learned these printed forms of words and learned to read. I went home and I said to my father, "Dad, I can do something you can't do." And he said, "What's that Jesse?" I said, "I can sign my name." My father was embarrassed. His face turned red and then he got my mother to teach him a memorized signature. My mother could well do it, she had finished the second grade.

Now you ask me. I have heard you talk. Where do your leaders in America come from, your educators? Where did you people come from? Where do your congressmen, your senators, your presidents, your builders, and your dreamers of American destiny? In America, they come from the poor homes, from the unlearned homes, from the middle-class

homes, from wealthy homes. Why? America still gives us a chance and may America continue to give us a chance. That's up to the schools.

Those good days ended for me at the Plum Grove school. At the age of eleven, I went to work at twenty-five cents a day. My father and a horse worked for two dollars a day, and my mother worked for twenty-five cents a day. The three of us and a horse made \$2.50 a day. And it was in the head of W Hallow where there was fifty acres of land. My dad went there and looked it over, dug it up, smelled of it, let it shift through his fingers, and he said, "This is the place." There wasn't a legal road leading to it, not a building on it. My dad borrowed the money, let the land stand good on the note, and Mr. Henry Wheeler, a man born in Germany that my father respected greatly, a great farmer in our section also, signed that note. Then he had to find another job. He knew he couldn't pay for that place, since \$300 was a lot of money to us. He walked across the hills five miles to Greenup, Kentucky, got a job on the railroad section that he held for twenty-three years, the best job he ever had in his life. Walked five miles to work, five miles back, worked ten hours, \$2.88 a day. In the meantime, my grandfather Hilton, who had outlived three of his wives—by the way, he waited until each one of them died before he married again—he came to live with us. He was a timber cutter and he and I went out and started cutting timber to build a house. My grandfather backed me up on the upper side of a tree and if any of you men have ever cut timber you know what it is with a big cross-cut saw. One time to get my wind I had to stand up and I said, "Grandfather," my granddad was past eighty, "when was the best days of your life." He said, "Son, they've all been good years, but I was a better man between the years of fifteen and seventy-five." We cut the trees, scored and hewed them, put up a log house. We had a house raising. Then we went out in the pasture where we had sheep. There is a big rock where the sheep got up to cut their feet on. You men who have raised sheep know how sheep cut their feet on a rock to keep them down. Granddad said that will make a chimney. And I soon learned that you could blast a rock, cut and score and hewn rocks and make a chimney. We put it up through the center of the house. That house we lived in for twenty some years.

In the meantime, I heard of a job at Greenup, Kentucky. They needed a waterboy on a street construction job over there. I walked across the hills, got the job at seventy-five cents a day. Think of carrying water to thirsty men, what an easy job! I held it three days. During those three days, I don't know how many men that I saw working at the concrete mixer quit their job because they claimed that pouring the cement in the mixer took the hide off them. I walked over and asked for the job. I got it. I held that job until the streets were finished. Now I have written thirteen books, over 300 short stories, 1,500 poems. I don't know whether one of them will be a monument to me or not. But let me tell you this, if any of you ever pass through Greenup,

Kentucky, on Route 23 that goes from Michigan to Florida, you will pass through the little town of Greenup, Kentucky, and you remember this when you ride over those streets that this speaker up here helped put every bit of cement in that concrete and that is one monument to me.

In life, one thing brings on another. It was there that I first saw a high school. A high school had started right where we finished the street. Boys and girls going well-dressed to this school, carrying books, not any blotches of cement on their clothes, or concrete on their shoes. Sometimes they were holding hands. I wanted to go to that high school. I went back and I told my dad about it and he said, "Jesse you can't go to that big school." I went down to see the superintendent of schools. He asked me how much education I had, he asked me where I had gone to school. I said, "Plum Grove." He said he had never heard of it. He hadn't. He asked me how much education I had had there. We figured it up, a little better than twenty-two months. He said, "I'm afraid you can't go to high school." I said I would just love to go. He said, "Well, we'll give you an examination. You will have to make an average of 75, you can't make below 60 on any subject; if you do, you are automatically out." I made an average of 78, five of the subjects I had never had in my life. I made 59 on composition. They stretched it one point and let me enter high school. Composition then and books now, who could ever tell. The first day I walked into that school, I had milked five or six cows at home, wore a sweater, walked five miles down there tickled to go to high school. A big fellow met me out where the street intersected from the main door of the school down to the city street. He looked me over and didn't say a word. He had something against me. I looked him over and I didn't say a word. Since he had something against me, I had something against him, and I didn't know what it was. Then he said, "Good morning, hayseed." When he said "Good morning, hayseed" I popped him and flattened him out. That afternoon I was out for a game I had never heard tell of—football. The first game I ever saw, I played in it. That was at Louisa, Kentucky, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court Fred Vinson's old hometown. They had three teams on the field, we had one and substitutes. Coach Wilson had me to sit on the bench and watch the game. He put his arm around my shoulder and said, "Stuart, when I put you in, take that guard out." He put me in, I took the guard out, we were penalized forty-five yards.

One of the things that changed my whole life was a gray-haired English teacher in the high school by the name of Mrs. R. E. Hatton. She happened to come from Missouri, one of the slowest walking women and talking women I ever saw. She had brown eyes and wore dark-rim glasses. She had one eye that looked straight out at you and one that went around and around. You couldn't do anything that Mrs. Hatton didn't see. One of the things that made me like Mrs. Hatton was this. One day she walked back through the aisles of that school building

auditorium and she stopped and put her hand on my head. She was the first woman up to that time, except my mother, who had ever laid a hand on my head. She said, "Jesse Stuart, I would like to live long enough to know that comes out of that head"—one of the finest compliments ever paid to me in high school. When she said that, Mrs. Hatton was my friend; I was eternally her friend. When she asked for one theme a week, I did not take just one, I would take anywhere from six to twenty-four themes a week to her class. If one of the students didn't have his theme there to read, I would read for him. If six of them didn't have their themes, I read for them. If the whole class didn't have them, I would read if Mrs. Hatton would let me. Now one of the things that bothered me in high school was this—three subjects. I suggested to the teachers that they not teach algebra, plane geometry, and Latin. Why? Because I failed those subjects. High school was one of the most wonderful places I had ever seen. I read, for the first time in my life, a novel, *Silas Marner*; it lifted me up. I thought it was a great novel then; I still think it is a great novel. These fabulous books, these writers from New England, from Indiana, Bret Harte from the West, Mark Twain, the southern writers, Paine and that group. They lifted me up. They made me want to go out and see America. To go beyond the boundary of my state.

One evening I walked in and I said, "Dad,"—we were sitting out in the chipyard, the moon had come out and it was the spring of the year; I think a few hollyhocks were budding to bloom—"I would like to go to college." He said, "Jesse, you can't go." Then I turned to him and I said, "Dad, I'm going to amount to something." He looked at me strangely and he said, "Jesse, who told you that." Dad was on the railroad section and I was out plowing. High school was over. I had dreams beyond the Greenup county hills. I took the team in and put it in the barn. I knew my mother would weep when I told her what I was going to do. I went to the house, packed my clothes, packed the themes I had written for Mrs. Hatton, walked down stairs with my suitcase, and I met Mom. Mom said, "Where you going, Jesse?" I said, "I'm leaving home." My mother laughed as she had never laughed before. "Why," she said, "I think its wonderful, Jesse. Go ahead. Chickens come home to roost. You'll be back." I went up W. Hallow. My dad came around the ridge. I missed him. Good that I missed him, too, for I would never have gotten past him. I arrived in Greenup, Kentucky. Where was I going, without any money? The street carnival was there. The man that took up the tickets at the Merry Mix Up lost his job. I asked for at and got it. I started out with the street carnival, came down right over here back of Cincinnati, played the towns in east Kentucky. Boys and girls would come in and want to spend their money and ride on the Merry Mix Up. They were about my age. I would let them ride. Then they would stand around when they had spent their money and want to ride some more. I would still let them ride some

more. Then, if the boy would get off and take up tickets in my place and let me ride around with his girl, we would ride some more. I lost my job right over here across from Cincinnati and from there I went to Ft. Knox, Kentucky, where I learned enough about the army to make me join the navy in this last World War.

Let me tell you briefly about Ft. Knox because it has a little bearing on education and a story. I loved the shooting at Ft. Knox. I lacked one point making expert rifleman. Loved the marching. Loved to hear an army band putting pep into the soldiers' steps. Loved to see the officers and their wives out looking us over at the reviewing stand. But one of things I didn't like was bayonet practice. I didn't think I could stick anybody with a bayonet unless I was awfully mad at him. One day out there I met a captain who said "What's your name?" I said, "Stuart, sir." "What company you from?" "Company I, sir." He said, "Why didn't you salute me?" I said, "I forgot, sir." A short time afterwards, at bayonet practice, I thought this incident was all over, but this captain had charge. He had a memory like an elephant. He singled me out. He said, "Stuart, I would like you to have enough sand in your craw, that, if I was to stick out my arm and tell you to wack it off with a bayonet, you would do it." And I said, "Sir, stick it out." That evening I was pulling weeds, splitting kindling with a dull ax, two men were over me with rifles and regular ammunition. I wasn't going to run, then. I had always wanted to go to West Point. Because of my father's political faith, we couldn't get an appointment where we lived, but my mother's faith was supreme there and I had her side working on it. Now I didn't want that appointment. My people had all been good soldiers. I'm not bragging when I say it. They had fought for America plenty of times when they didn't have to fight. They had fought for Kentucky and they had died for both. I wanted to get ahead and be an officer in the army. Now I didn't want it. I read in a newspaper where a man, who became president of a steel mill company, had hired in as a standby laborer. I said, if he could do it, I could do it. The closest steel mill was Ashland, Kentucky—the American Rolling Mills. I went there and got a job as a standby laborer; I went to work. I worked four days on the outside, then they took me inside. Being a good worker—not bragging when I say that—I went in and started swinging a sledge hammer in a blacksmith's shop. Then one night the man in the shop got drunk. I didn't drink. The boss got out somewhere and started cooking a turtle. He came in and asked me if I would have a piece of this boiled turtle. And I told him no. I stayed with some razor-blade steel and kept \$30,000 worth of it from burning. The next day I was promoted to a blacksmith at the American Rolling Mills. I was going pretty fast. Now I paid up my bills. And had a few dollars ahead. But something happened. The leaves turned color again, September had come. What is it about September with teachers, school people, when the leaves turn color and you see the

children going down the dusty road to the little school, walking down the leaf-strewn streets to the high school? You see the football in the air; something gets under our skins.

I left American Rolling Mills and started hitch-hiking to find a college. I did more hiking then hitching to Morehead State College. I stopped there long enough to look the place over. I slept in a haystack to save my dollars, washed my face in the creek the next morning and then went on to Kentucky Westland at Winchester, Kentucky. I saw a boy cutting grass, and I said "Say fellow, how about me getting in this school?" He said, "I guess you can." I said, "How much does it cost to go to school here?" He said, "About \$300." I said, "Could a fellow do it on thirty." He said, "I'm afraid you can't." I never asked the school official. I turned south and went to Berea College, looked up Dean Hendrix and I told him what I wanted. He said, "Do you drink?" I said, "No, sir." He said, "Do you smoke?" I said, "No, sir." He said, "You would make a good Berea student but we can't have you until next year, I have 106 on the waiting list." I said, "No next year for me. I'm going to college." "Aw," he said, "since you insist, there's a little school down in Tennessee, Lincoln Memorial University. Dean Louis from Berea College is acting president down there. Go down and tell him I sent you there." I hitch-hiked that night and arrived the next morning with a little bag in my hand and a turkey of clothes over my shoulder. I walked across the campus, joined in a line registering, got up to Dean Louis. He looked through the cards. He asked me my name. I said, "Stuart." He said, "We don't have your name here; why did you come here?" And I said, "Dean Louis, the dean of Berea College told me that, since they couldn't take me in at Berea College, you would take me at Lincoln Memorial University." He looked at me and he said, "Stuart, you've got an honest face." I got in college on my face.

Lincoln Memorial was a great institution. Now where else but in America could any youth go to college like that. They took me in that school on my face, kept me three years and two summers on \$30. Lincoln Memorial was a wonderful place. It was as far ahead of the high school as the high school had been ahead of Plum Grove. Here it was easy going. Just a half-day's work, going to school a half day. I was very fortunate in the roommate that I was assigned, Mason Dorsey Gardner. He was the best math student at Lincoln Memorial. I had only one distinction at that school—I never missed a meal in 365 days. Why? Because I washed the pots and pans in addition to half-a-day's work. Now Gardner was kind to me with algebra; but good students in one field sometimes have trouble in another. Gardner had his troubles with English. He couldn't write themes. I had one nest egg, a theme entitled "Nest Egg" that I had written for Mrs. Hatton. It had received an "A" from Mrs. Hatton. I tried it at Lincoln Memorial University and it made an "A." I can tell you people this, you teachers, there aren't any of your students in here. I said, "Gardner, won't you try 'Nest

Egg' in your section of English?" Gardner first was mighty slow about it. He later, by the way, studied for the ministry. Finally, he took the theme and it made an "A" for him. That theme at Lincoln Memorial University made 28 "A's" in the three years and two summers I was under the different English courses and under the different teachers.

Twenty years later, before I went into the navy, I looked over some old manuscripts—you don't know when you're coming back when you go into service—I found "Nest Egg," changed six words in it, re-typed it, and sent it to *Atlantic Monthly*. *Atlantic Monthly* gets anywhere from 100 to 125,000 short story manuscripts a year. From that number, they select anywhere from twelve to sixteen stories for publication. They accepted "Nest Egg." Then the next thing, my publishers brought out a collection of stories—I was already in the navy—called *Tales of the Plum Grove Hills*. "Nest Egg" was included. Later, I heard from the University of Michigan. Carleton Wells, wrote me a letter. He said, "Thank you, Jesse Stuart, for the fine short story, 'Nest Egg,' in Watt and Cargill's *College Reader*. My students loved it. Besides, you are in good company with fifteen other short story writers from New Zealand, Australia, England, Ireland, America, and Canada." I walked in the wind when it happened. That collection is used in such institutions as Harvard, Yale, and the University of Michigan. I think it was used at Vanderbilt, and I don't know how many other big colleges and universities. Now, why would I bring that up here? Why would I tell you that? What is the moral of that story? The moral is this: Twenty-nine school teachers were right.

While at Lincoln Memorial University, I received two dollars. But that's beside the point. I got a degree and started hitch-hiking back home. One of the things I said I would never do was to teach school. Why not teach school? I'll tell you. My sister took an examination in the days when that was done in Kentucky. She went out to teach school. A first-grade pupil beat her up—by the way, he was eighteen years old. I wanted to go out and get him, but dad said, "Jesse, if you do that, you hunt for trouble and you will always find it when you hunt for it." I took a teacher's examination and barely made a third-class certificate, the lowest you can make in the state of Kentucky. I made it by the skin of my teeth with two points to spare. I went out and saw that trustee and got that school. I wanted to see that boy. He also wanted to see me. He was still in the first grade and he was now nineteen years old. By the way, that was in the days in our county in Kentucky when we didn't have a single high school except the little independent school at Greenup and one at Russell. They just stayed in the elementary school in those days and never went to high school. Today there are eight high schools there—roads go back into those sections. Well, when this boy came down and looked me over, I was scared to death. I was sorry that I had taken that school. We had to have it out. Three weeks after I was there I discovered that this boy chewed to-

bacco on the school ground. Here's the way I worked that. I let him go after buckets of water so he wouldn't chew on the school ground—get him away. I was afraid to tackle him but I knew I would have to do it if he started chewing tobacco on the school ground. There is a law in Kentucky against chewing tobacco by a grown-up or a student on the school ground.

After three weeks, one day I was working on my record book. This boy came back, the maddest man I ever saw. He came in and said, "Take off that nice looking coat you're wearing." And I said, "What's wrong here?" And he said, "I'm going to whip you. I lambasted the daylights out of your sister and I'm going to give it to you." I said, "Can't you go to another school?" And he said, "Not until I've whipped you." I took off my coat. And then he said, "Take off that nice looking necktie and that white shirt before I drag them through the the oil on this floor." I was backed in the corner. There was no way of getting out of a window, no way of getting out of the door. But I remembered the hardest thing in football. Leaving my feet and tackling, I tackled him below the knees as quickly as I ever tackled a man in my life. Where I made the mistake was letting him get up. Now, high-school principals all over America, I'm not advocating teaching like that. Don't ever think I am. But when you have to fight, I guess you just have to. He got up and we slugged it out. He could have well got me, but I got the right lick and got him. That was the first time I had ever knocked anybody out. I took cold water from the water bucket—partly cold—washed his face with a clean handkerchief, dried it. He got up. We walked down the road together. Then he said to me, "You know, you're some fighter." I went to my trustee's home. He was waiting to see if I got in in one piece. This boy had told everybody in the community that on this day he was gonna settle the score with me and I would be the third teacher he had put out of that school. But he didn't settle the score with me. I became a hero in that community by whipping him, but not because I had taught them how to measure a piece of land—how many of your pupils can measure land?—How to figure out the dirt taken out of a cellar, out of a well; painted the school house; taught them cleanliness; and made the place sanitary. That didn't mean anything. My whipping Guy Hawkins made me a hero in the community.

After that I stayed there and finished the year. I said I would never teach school again. When I got home from college, Mom said "Jesse, we're proud of you, a college graduate. Welcome home." Dad said, "Jesse, I forgive you for running away from home. Even out on the railroad section where we carry the crossties up the side of the banks and put them on the key rails, the young men take the heavy end of the ties and go in front because I got a boy finishing college." I hope, if you have sons and daughters who finish college, that you compliment them and make them feel like my parents made me feel. Mom said, "Jesse, what are you going to do now." I said, "I don't know."

She said, "I know what you're going to do." I said, "What?" She said, "You're going to teach school. The superintendent of the Greenup County schools wants to see you. There's a place waiting for you." I always listened to my mother. I went to see the superintendent of the Greenup County schools. He said, "Yes, we have a place for you." I said, "Where is it?" I thought it was the main high school. He said, "Red Hot High School." By the way, it got that name because a steam engine blew up there. The old people still use that name, but we had so many people laugh at the name that we had to change it to Warne, Kentucky, and in *The Thread That Runs So True*, I changed it again to Winston, Kentucky.

I said to Mr. Nichol, "How many students at Red Hot High School?" He said, "Fourteen." I said, "Who will be the faculty?" He said, "You'll be the faculty." I said, "What will I teach at Red Hot High School?" He said, "Algebre, Latin, plane geometry, history, and English." I said, "Mr. Nichol, I can't teach algebre." He said, "Aw, yes you can. You have a nice transcribe of credits in here. We've got your credits. Why can't you teach with an 'A' and a 'B' in algebre?" You know you can't cheat on any one subject, so I decided then to learn algebre. I said, "Mr. Nichol, I'll be your faculty."

I went out to take this school. I rode a Reo speed wagon and the swirls of dust where lovers sat on the bags of mail, women sat in men's laps and, in some incidences, men were sitting on women's laps. Every time we stopped the Reo speed wagon, a swirl of dust enclosed the entire wagon. Eventually, we arrived there. Then I looked for my schoolhouse. I wish that that schoolhouse were standing up here on this stage so you could see it. It was an old Woodsmen of the World lodge hall. Horseweeds grew above the building. It was the dirtiest building I had ever seen. I knew I couldn't finish cleaning it that Saturday evening, so on Sunday morning, I went to work, got two of Aut Taylor's boys—the place where I boarded—and the boys who attended school under me to come down and help. We started work. We cut the horseweeds with a scythe, cut the stubble with a hoe, carried and threw them over the Tiger River bank. We killed a cow snake inside the building, tore down mud daubers' nests, wasps' nests, swept the place, scrubbed it out twice, made it and the outbuildings sanitary, and got ready for school on Monday morning.

While there, the ugliest boy that I have ever seen in my life came to the school. He had a shaggy head of hair; he had elongated gray eyes; he swaggered when he walked; he wore tight-fitting pants; and he pulled the wind with cupped hands as if he were climbing a hill. Snooky Taylor introduced him to me as Bugs Waters. I said, "Bugs, are you coming to school tomorrow?" He said, "I'll be here bright and early." When he went away, I said to Snooky Taylor, "You mean to tell me that boy is coming to high school." He said, "Yes, Mr. Stuart. He'll be here." I said, "I don't think he'll ever get through high school." "He'll not be hard to get through," Snooky Taylor said, "if you're not

smart, Bugs Waters will be teaching you." The first question I asked was in ancient history about a Pharaoh king. Bugs Waters' hand went up. He took the entire period telling not only about the Pharaoh king that I asked about but also about the entire dynasty of the Pharaoh kings—who they married, what happened in their reigns, and about their names, dates, births, and deaths. I followed him in the book and I know he was right. Any time the teacher or one of his classmates made a mistake, that was the only time he laughed. He laughed all the time.

Another little boy came to me with a problem in algebra, about a train—one starts over here and goes so fast going this way, one starts over there and comes so fast this way, when and where will they meet? I can't quote that problem and I never could work it. I said, "Billy, I can't work it." He said, "That's right, Mr. Stuart, you want us to work them." I said, "Yes, if you can work them." Billy went to his seat, came back in a few minutes with the problem worked. I could tell it was right. Now this boy, Billy Linkus, was in the second World War. He was a navigator on a bomber. He navigated a bomber from Italy to the United States, only thirty yards or something like that off course, one of the early feats and a great one—all your papers over here carried an article about him. So it seems to me that a navigator on a bomber has to know something about mathematics. Now I taught that boy high-school algebra.

One day I went in to see my superintendent and he said, "Stuart, are you having trouble?" And I said, "Plenty." He said, "What's the matter? Is it like Lonesome Valley?" I said, "No sir, my students are working me to death. I had taken guns out there to hunt with, taken fifty books to read, a suitcase full of them. I couldn't hunt. I couldn't read. All I did was study algebra, Latin, and plane geometry of the night." Mr. Nichol started laughing. I said, "I'm telling you the truth, I'm serious." And then he laughed louder than ever. He couldn't believe me. Then, when he found out I was serious, he said, "Well, what am I to do about it?" I said, "I would love to enter some students in a scholastic contest somewhere to see if I'm right about them. I believe that I've got five that's above an 'A' out there in that fourteen." "Well," he said, "they'll have to take an examination against the mother high school first." That was the Greenup City and County High School, over 400 pupils. I had fourteen. I said, "You set the date and we'll take the test." They set the date for February—one of the coldest days I have ever seen in my life. The Department of Education at the University of Kentucky made out the questions and a key by which to grade them. On that February day, there was seven boys and I that got on mules, climbed in the saddle, because mules were sure-footed. Snow lay on those Kentucky hills, ice on the roads, and it was seven-teen miles. We started for Greenup, Kentucky.

On the way, we had to stop to thaw Billy Linkus out. He got cold and was going to sleep in the saddle, so we thawed him out. He was the youngest of the group. We got to the Greenup High School at noon.

When we crossed that school ground, the pupils' faces were against every window pane in the school building, looking at us and smiling. That was the first time a mule cavalcade had ever crossed that school ground. We tied them to the board fence and entered the school building. The students gathered around us as if we were people from another world. They looked at Bugs Waters as I had looked at him. In the examination, there was one subject that we didn't teach at our school, but I put Bugs Waters in it, along with four others. That evening when the scores were counted, we had taken six first places out of seven. Bugs Waters had taken five. Then what did they say about me in Greenup, Kentucky? They said, "That man out there is a genius, bring him in here and make him principal of this high school." That's how I got my first job as a principal of a big high school. What did I do? I encountered the same problems that you run into every day. First thing, a number of pupils had been suspended from the school. What would I do? I knew what I was going to do; I was going to reinstate them. And I'll tell you why, among them was my brother. His is another story. He now has fifteen years as a teacher, a principal, and a superintendent back at his some school and four years in the navy and is thirty-six years old. So you see sometimes it pays to reinstate a student. He knew every trick any boy would ever do because he had done them all himself. He made a wonderful schoolman.

Let me tell you about another instance in my high school. The day we opened, all of these students from Red Hot High School came in and among them was Bugs Waters. I said, "Bugs, where are you staying?" He said, "I don't know. I haven't got any place to stay." I said, "You go home with me." Bugs Waters stayed with my mother and father, he never paid a dollar's board for two years. He finished high school and, while he was in that school, we always took the scholastic contest in East Kentucky. We also took it once in the entire state. It doesn't take many pupils to do that even if there are a thousand high schools if you can get some firsts. Bugs Waters and Woodridge Peers would take the firsts. I got along fine as a high-school principal. We had a band. Our athletic teams started winning because the only place these boys from out there in the country, Jesse Johnson among them, knew to play on that football field was in the other fellow's backfield. They had never played football before.

One of the mistakes I made was when somebody asked me how much salary I got. I said, "Eleven hundred dollars a year." He said, "Why don't you ask for \$1,500." So I asked a board member for \$1,500. He said he would take it up with the board. When the board met, I was out of a school. I borrowed \$250 and I started to Vanderbilt University. I knew I was leaving school work for good this time. I was going to Vanderbilt University, the home of writers. I was going to live on my farm and write. I had one distinction at Vanderbilt. There were sixty janitors, I was the only student janitor at Vanderbilt. I lived on eleven

meals a week for the first semester, but when Westly Hall cafeteria burned during the second semester, I lived on seven meals a week. I'll tell you if you are ever forced to have to do this, how to do it. Don't eat any breakfast, drink water, eat a good square meal at two o'clock in the afternoon, then at night drink more water. You'll get along all right. While at Vanderbilt, one of the great schools of America, I met a teacher there by the name of Dr. Mimms. I had had a time at Vanderbilt University. My papers had come up. I had had to write about dead men. I couldn't write about dead men. I wanted to meet and mingle and write about living men. I'd rather hear your stories than to tell you mine. Each of you has a book to write and a story to tell. Don't you think you haven't, if you've lived at all.

Before the year was over at Vanderbilt, Dr. Mimms said he wanted to get better acquainted with his students. He asked us to write a term paper about our lives, not under five pages, not over eighteen, because he said he read all the papers turned in to him and he had thirty-five in the class. Now, the students started quipping about the important things in their lives. I think any student's life is important, any teacher's life is important. If you can only make a good citizen out of a pupil, it is a great achievement. Think of the people we've got who are bright and are not good students. But anyway, I started writing this paper. I couldn't put it on five pages for Dr. Mimms. I had eleven days to write it. When I finished, I had 322 pages from margin to margin. I waited until all the students had handed in their papers; then, I handed Dr. Mimms mine. I had it on cardboard, bound down with big, heavy rubber bands to make it look thin. Dr. Mimms felt the weight. He said, "There you go, Stuart, you fail my class when you hand me a paper like this." I left Dr. Mimms. He went his way with an arm load of papers. Three days later I met him. He said, "Stuart, I believe this is a book. It's so crudely written"—these are his exact words—"yet, so beautiful." Then he added in a softer tone of voice, "and it needs punctuation." Vanderbilt University was a new university to me. That was the first book I had ever written. It was published as my third book; it got front page reviews. You can check it and see in the *New York Times*. They said, "Why would a young man at the age of twenty-nine write his autobiography." What if they had known that I had written that at the age of twenty-three for an English term paper at Vanderbilt University and failed my course. All right, you can't tell about education; you can't tell about writing. Dr. Mimms is one of the great teachers that I have had in my life. He would fail a student. Great teachers fail a student.

I couldn't get around Dr. Mimms and, therefore, I had to do something. I wanted to tell him something about me without answering his questions in the class—I didn't like the questions. I didn't get an M.A. degree at Vanderbilt University. I borrowed two dollars from a girl I was dating there and left for home—by the way, I paid that two dollars

back. I didn't marry her, I married another one—a school teacher from the Greenup County hills of Kentucky. I hitch-hiked back home. Mom said, "Welcome home, Jesse, we knew you would return." Mom didn't have to say that to me. Kentucky never looked better to me in my life—dogwood in bloom, the redbird in bloom, the little streams of blue water. It was wonderful. And I started the old life again. James was there. Of a morning, we would get up at four o'clock, gear the teams, milk the cows, then eat breakfast. Then, we would start working in the corn and tobacco. Great days! Ideas for poems came to me like rain falls from the skies! I couldn't write the number of ideas I would have. I would sit on the beam of a plow, write anywhere from sixteen to forty-three poems at a time. Those poems, without change, are in *Man With a Bull-Tongue Plow*. Those good days! James and I loved them together. We walked to the Ohio River, five miles, after a day's work. We swam the river with three dogs, a mile diagonally across and then swam another mile diagonally back to the Kentucky side. We would go to a square dance, dance all night, get in at four o'clock, in time to start harnessing the mules, work again all that day, milk the cows that evening, then we would go to bed and sleep. Every other night we slept. Those good days! You talk to me about American democracy in education. Democracy is not something you put in a gold frame and hand on a wall—sweet words. Democracy is so much living; it's so much sweating; it's so much fighting for something. Education is the same thing.

One day, three men came to me and said, "Is this where the Stuart's live?" And I said, "Yes." They said, "We're looking for Jesse Stuart," and I said, "You're talking to him." They said, "We want you, young man, back in the schools." I said, "You're not getting me." They said, "We want you for county school superintendent." "Aw," I said, "Why didn't you tell me that?" Think of being over everybody—all the teachers of the county. I said, "I'll sure be that if I can get a certificate in time." I got the certificate, and I became—because only one other person applied and that person didn't qualify—superintendent of Greenup County schools at the age of twenty-four. I thought this was wonderful. Dad thought it was the greatest achievement that his son could have. Now let me tell you, if there are any of you principals who have been superintendents, if there are any of you who will be shoved up as superintendents, you have my sympathy. During that year we had thirty-two law suits. We won thirty-one and a half of them. The half ended in the state's Supreme Court. I'll tell you what the catch was when I went out there. Three months after I was superintendent, the banks closed. We couldn't pay our teachers. I thought teachers would have to be given pep talks to keep that big school system going. When I went out to visit these little rural schools where the youth were walking bare-footed, frost on the leaves, eating dry corn-bread for their lunches—they weren't anemic pupils either,

they were healthy-looking youth—I thought I would have to give pep talks. These teachers gave me pep talks. The teaching profession was the only profession I had seen up to that time or since that would work without pay. We stayed in that county and fought, literally fought, and kept that school system going. Here's the way I bought stamps. I sold hen eggs at seven cents a dozen. Stamps at that time were one, two, and three cents each. I could only buy two three-cent stamps and a one-cent postcard with a dozen hen eggs. But I sent Donald Davison at Vanderbilt University some of my poetry. He wrote back and he said, "Stuart, you have hit your stride. Send these poems to a magazine." I sent them to *American Mercury*, *Poetry Magazine of Verse*, and the *Virginia Quarterly Review*. All of them were accepted. I received \$150, the greatest \$150 I ever got in my life.

And then what happened? It was at that time that I had to start going armed as a county school superintendent. That superintendency was worse for me than World War II. I talked to my board members about whether they would rehire me or not. They said, "Yes, we will rehire you, but we advise you to leave the superintendency." I said, "Why?" And they said, "You have done too much in too short a time. You have got the people riled against you." Then they told me about places that were dangerous for me to frequent. Later, just a short time later, I caught it. I was in a drugstore with my back turned when a man hit me with a blackjack. I went to a hospital—but I don't know how—with three gashes on my skull and my shoes full of blood. Now when you fight for something, you're liable to have to bleed a little. Don't forget it. But that county school superintendent's position is something that I will never forget. I was sent from there to McKell High School across from Portsmouth, Ohio. My board put me in there; they took me out of the superintendency. At McKell High School I tried one thing. I wanted to build a model high school. I thought then, and I think now, that ignorance is dangerous. I wanted to go out and get all that were qualified to enter high school and some of them if they weren't qualified and bring them to my high school, old and young alike. First, my superintendent was against me. Then, my teachers were against me. But, finally, they let me do it. We brought them in, the oldest student I had was sixty-nine years old in high school, the youngest I had was eleven years old. That oldest one, last year at the age of eighty-four, wrote one of the best histories of East Kentucky that has ever been written—one of the best books I have ever seen of its kind. So you can't tell. That fight, that pioneer fight, was in her.

Before I left the superintendency I got a letter from a publishing house asking, "Have you got any more poems like those in the *Virginia Quarterly Review*?" I wrote back and said, "Yes, 703." Then I sent my poems to the publishing house. They were published while at McKell High School, *A Man With A Bull-Tongue Plow*. The themes that I had written for Mrs. Hatton, sixteen of them, plus others were sent out

to magazines and accepted as short stories. Then came more short stories and a collection came out of them.

One of my teachers from Peabody College, Dr. Crab, suggested that I apply for a Guggenheim Fellowship. I applied and got it. I went to Europe where I visited twenty-seven countries; I visited schools in those countries; I visited farms. I came back to America, third-class on the *Countess of Savoy*, with seven dollars in my pockets. I had spent all of the Guggenheim Fellowship—all the money I had; all I could borrow. But I had seen Europe before World War II. All of these people in Europe are fine people—the home of your ancestry, they are good people there. I came back to this country. Here was the dream. Here it was in America. Newspapers with big headlines, hot dogs, hamburgers, good old American institutions, the small of the very air was that it was American. And if I could have reached out and hugged the Statue of Liberty's neck, I would have done it. Back to America. I didn't worry about what was going to happen. I came back. I started working in the sprout fields. Mr. Sherman Dale who is sitting in this audience gave me a place in his high school because I had none in Kentucky. I went on to teach school and to fight for the teachers of America and to write a book, *The Thread That Runs So True*, against everybody's wish. All said, "Write a novel," but I wrote that book instead.

It's fine to come here and speak to you members of my profession, high-school principals. You've been a wonderful audience to speak to but I dreaded it. Thank you very much.

Remark after thunderous applause

In college I wouldn't take public speaking. I said I couldn't stand up and talk. Took a "W" (withdraw) instead of an "F." I said I would never have to give a talk. Well, today I have spoken to you. You tell your pupils when you go back home that there's not any subject that they will take that will not come in handy for them. You tell them that. Everything that I failed in, I'm doing today.

NATIONAL BOYS AND GIRLS WEEK

The 32nd annual observance of Boys and Girls Week which has for its purpose the focusing of community attention on youth's achievements as well as their problems in a week-long program of activities emphasizing citizenship, church, school, home, career preparation, health, safety, international understanding, and recreation will be held April 26 to May 3, 1952. The theme is *Learning to Serve*. Readers who desire further information should contact the nearest Rotary club.

Annual Business Meeting

Tuesday, February 19, 1952, 4:30 P.M., Pavillion Caprice

PRESIDING: *Joseph B. Chaplin*, Principal, Bangor Senior High School, Bangor, Maine; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals

PRESIDENT Chaplin opened the meeting and explained that because of limitation of time, it was not the purpose of this meeting to present lengthy reports and discuss activities of the Association, both being presented to all members through regular communications and publications.

ELECTION OF OFFICERS

Dr. E. W. Montgomery, Superintendent, Phoenix Union High Schools, President of Phoenix Junior College, Phoenix, Arizona, and Chairman of the Board of Nominators which is composed of the State Co-ordinators and who make all nominations for elective officers, gave a report of the Board of Nominators' meeting held on Monday afternoon, February 18, 1952. The following officers were submitted in nomination and were unanimously elected:

PRESIDENT: *Harold B. Brooks*, Principal, Benjamin Franklin Junior High School, Long Beach, California.

FIRST VICE PRESIDENT: *Joseph C. McLain*, Principal, Mamaroneck Senior High School, Mamaroneck, New York.

SECOND VICE PRESIDENT: *James E. Blue*, Principal, West Senior High School, Rockford, Illinois.

Other Members of Executive Committee:

George L. Cleland, Principal, Ingalls Junior-Senior High School, Atchison, Kansas.

Clarence H. Spain, Principal, Binford Junior High School, Richmond, Virginia.

Other Officers of the Executive Committee Previously Elected:

Joseph B. Chaplin, Principal, Bangor Senior High School, Bangor, Maine.

Leland N. Drake, Principal, Mound Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio.

Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary-Treasurer, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

RESOLUTIONS

Recommendation of the Committee on the Relation of Secondary Education to National Security

Dr. C. W. Sanford, Chairman of the Committee and Director of the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program, and Associate Dean of

the College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, presented the following resolution:

WHEREAS, our national security is now and will probably continue to be seriously threatened for some years to come, and

WHEREAS, the safeguarding of our national security will require a competently trained and adequately equipped military establishment of not less than 3.5 million men, and

WHEREAS, this military establishment can be effective only if it is undergirded by maximum industrial and agricultural production, a strong economy, and a unified people dedicated to the preservation of our free institutions, and WHEREAS, only a free people served by a system of universal free public education can acquire the allegiances, the knowledge, and the skills which are requisite for the maintaining of an adequate military establishment; achieve and maintain maximum industrial and agricultural production; and strengthen and preserve the free institutions upon whose successful operation the providing of these necessities for survival is contingent, and

WHEREAS, it is, therefore, necessary to the national security that the education of youth be interrupted to no greater extent than the providing of adequate manpower to the military establishment requires, and

WHEREAS, Universal Military Training would seriously interrupt the education of youth without providing a single soldier adequately trained for combat, and

WHEREAS, Selective Service would, as now, be made operative in the case of war or the threat of war, and

WHEREAS, Selective Service both (a) provides the requisite adequately trained manpower for our military forces and (b) does so with the minimum possible interference with the education of youth, therefore

BE IT RESOLVED that the National Association of Secondary-School Principals affirm its support of the principle of Selective Service and go on record as opposing the establishment of Universal Military Training.

After some discussion the Resolution was approved and recommended to the Executive Committee for adoption.

Athletic Standards

Dr. Lloyd Michael, Principal, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, presented a resolution on Athletic Standards as they apply to the relationship of secondary schools to the admission policy of school athletes.

WHEREAS, this Association in co-operation with the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation and the National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations for a number of years has worked for acceptable standards to provide an effective educational athletic program for high schools through the Joint Committee on Standards on Interscholastic Athletics

AND WHEREAS, the Executive Committee of the American Council on Education on Saturday, February 16, 1952, unanimously approved a nine-point code for the control of intercollegiate athletics; this nine-point code seeks to combat the evils of solicitation, commercialism, and professionalism in intercollegiate athletics, and this action of the American Council on Education is effective immediately and is to be enforced by the regional accrediting association.

THEREFORE, be it resolved that the members of the Association in annual business meeting assembled recommend that our Executive Committee commend the American Council on Education for its clear-cut stand and the full assumption of responsibility for the control of intercollegiate athletics by the administration of the higher institutions

AND BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the members of this Association request the Joint Committee on Standards for Interscholastic Athletics, through our Executive Committee, to expand its statement of standards to include specifications pertaining to the admission policies and practices of colleges as they relate to the high-school athlete and to the protection of his educational interests in high school and college

AND BE IT FINALLY RESOLVED that our Association through its Executive Committee, contact the various regional accrediting associations at once and advise them that it is the recommendation of this Association that they authorize committees to receive and act upon information from high-school authorities concerning violations of the standards to be determined by the Joint Committee and the nine-point code of the American Council on Education.

Meeting adjourned.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

November 9-15, 1952

General Theme: CHILDREN IN TODAY'S WORLD

Daily Topics

SUNDAY	November 9	<i>Their Churches</i>
MONDAY	November 10	<i>Their Homes</i>
TUESDAY	November 11	<i>Their Heritage</i>
WEDNESDAY	November 12	<i>Their Schools</i>
THURSDAY	November 13	<i>Their Country</i>
FRIDAY	November 14	<i>Their Opportunity</i>
SATURDAY	November 15	<i>Their Future</i>

Sponsoring Organizations: the National Education Association, The American Legion, the United States Office of Education, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Financial Statements

of the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

To the Finance Committee

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

A Department of the National Education Association

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Gentlemen:

At your request we have audited the accounts and records of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals for the Fiscal Year ending June 30, 1951.

CERTIFICATE

I hereby certify that I have audited the accounts and records of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, a Department of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C., and in my opinion subject to the qualifications and comments set forth in the section under "comments" and made a part of this report, the accompanying Balance Sheet and related statements of income, present fairly the position of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals at June 30, 1951, and the result of its operation for the year ending that date.

Respectfully submitted, FLOYD W. BUSH,

Certified Public Accountant.

BALANCE SHEET—JUNE 30, 1951

ASSETS

Cash on hand and in bank	\$81,952.40	
Cash on hand—Savings Account	26,209.09	
Petty cash fund.....	20.00	\$108,181.49
Returned checks.....		23.15
Bills receivable.....		8,236.86
Inventories	80,504.48	
Less—Reserve for valuation of Bulletins	4,795.00	75,708.58
Securities (Listed below)		106,800.00
Furniture and fixtures	11,062.68	
Less—Reserve for depreciation.....	3,986.23	7,076.45
Total Assets		\$306,026.52

LIABILITIES AND NET WORTH

Bills payable		\$ 10,807.29	
Net Worth July 1, 1950, per prior report dated September 26, 1950	\$268,171.83		
Add—Furniture and fixtures adjustment	11.92	\$268,183.75	
Add—Net Profit for Fiscal Year ended June 30, 1951		21,472.80	289,656.55
Scholarship Fund:			
Balance of fund July 1, 1950, per prior report dated September 26, 1950		11,978.94	
Deduct—Excess of Disbursements over Receipts for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1951		6,416.25	5,562.69
Total Liabilities and Net Worth			\$306,026.53

STATEMENT OF INVESTMENTS

June 30, 1951

Real Estate Loans		
First Mortgage Real Estate Note, 5%, on property at 5909-11 West Roosevelt Road, Cicero, Illinois, of Herbert G. and Clarice Beck	\$	3,750.00
Stocks		
One LaSalle Street Company, 5 shares, no par value		500.00
Public Utility Bonds		
Pecoria Public Service Company, 5%, due June 1, 1939, (extended to June 1, 1954)		3,000.00
Pecoria Service Company 90 shares		450.00
United States Bonds		
Twelve Federal Land Banks		5,000.00
U. S. Treasury, 3% of 1955		10,000.00
U. S. Treasury, 2½% of 1960		18,000.00
U. S. Treasury, 2½% of 1959-65		13,000.00
U. S. Savings Bonds, Series G		53,100.00
Total Value of Investments		\$106,800.00

Constitution

Of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association

(As Revised March 1, 1949)

ARTICLE I—Name

The name of this organization shall be the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE II—Aim

The aim of this Association shall be the advancement of secondary education by providing a clearinghouse of discussion bearing upon the problems of administration and supervision, by encouraging research, by upholding acceptable standards, by fostering professional ideals, and by formulating a working philosophy of secondary education.

ARTICLE III—Membership

SECTION 1. The membership of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall consist of four classes: active, associate, institutional, and life.

SECTION 2. All individuals shall be eligible to active membership who are engaged in administering supervision or teaching secondary education upon payment of the annual fee of \$5.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 3. Members of state organizations of secondary-school principals shall be eligible to active membership in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals by the payment of the annual fee of \$3.00 through the state secretary or representative.

SECTION 4. All other persons interested in secondary education shall be eligible to associate membership upon payment of the annual fee of \$5.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 5. Only active members shall have the privilege of voting or holding office.

SECTION 6. Institutional membership shall be open to all secondary schools and libraries and other educational institutions. The annual dues of \$8.00 shall be paid by the educational institution. If institutional membership is obtained through a state secondary-school principals' association, it shall be \$6.00 per year. The principal of a member school shall be credited with a personal participating membership and shall receive all benefits and privileges pertaining thereto. The school library shall receive a copy of all proceedings, bulletins, reports, special reports of the National Honor Society, and a subscription to *Student Life*. The school may also designate a teacher representative who shall receive delegate privileges, including convention registration privileges at the annual conventions of the Association.

SECTION 7. Any individual eligible to active or associate membership in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall have life membership upon payment of the life membership fee of \$100.00 to the executive secretary.

ARTICLE IV—Officers

SECTION 1. The elective officers of the Association shall be a president, a first vice president, and a second vice president.

SECTION 2. The president and the vice presidents shall hold office for one year.

SECTION 3. The Executive Committee shall consist of the officers, the retiring president, and three other members each elected for a term of three years. At the first election, one member shall be elected for only one year and one other for two years. The Executive Committee shall be representative of junior high schools, the several types of senior high schools, and junior colleges.

SECTION 4. The executive secretary shall be selected by the Executive Committee; his duties and compensation shall be determined by the Executive Committee.

SECTION 5. The Executive Committee shall appoint sectional chairmen and recorders for the divisions or sections of the junior colleges, the senior high schools, and the junior high schools. These officers shall assist in the making and holding of sectional programs for the conventions of the Association and give assistance in other ways as may be determined by the Executive Committee. When the officers are not members of the Executive Committee, they shall act in an advisory capacity to the Executive Committee within the fields represented.

SECTION 6. Each state association shall appoint a state co-ordinator who shall jointly represent the state association and the national organization. When state associations do not provide such an officer, the National Association shall appoint a state co-ordinator.

ARTICLE V—*Nominations and Elections.*

SECTION 1. The state co-ordinators shall constitute a board of nominators for the elective officers of the Association. Each co-ordinator shall send to the president of the Association, not less than sixty days in advance of the annual meeting, a nomination for any elective office. When possible, the co-ordinators shall obtain the endorsement of the state association for the name submitted. The co-ordinator shall send a supporting statement and endorsement for each of his nominations in accordance with the qualifications as listed in Section 3 of Article V.

SECTION 2. The state co-ordinators shall meet as a board of nominators at a regularly scheduled meeting at the time of the annual convention. A tabulated report of the nominations with supporting statements and endorsements shall be presented by the chairman of the board of nominators, who shall previously have been appointed by the president from the present or past membership of the Executive Committee.

SECTION 3. The board of nominators in making their final selection shall consider the tabulated returns in relation to: (a) service which the nominee has given his state principals' association and particularly the National Association; (b) qualities and accomplishments which point to successful national leadership; (c) consideration to the standing of the school represented by the nominee; (d) consideration to the frequency of representation from the territory of each of the Regional Associations of Colleges and Secondary Schools; (e) consideration to the balance of representation among the several offices in respect to the various geographical regions as represented by the regional associations; (f) consideration but not obligation to follow sequence of office in respect to the nominees; (g) freedom to propose other nominations under justifiable expedient.

SECTION 4. Eighteen co-ordinators shall constitute a quorum for the board of nominators. Any lack in the representation herein provided shall be filled by temporary appointments made by the Executive Committee or the president.

SECTION 5. The chairman of the board of nominators shall submit the final list of candidates as prepared by the board to the members of the Association at the annual business meeting. A written statement in support of each nominee shall be read by the chairman to the members assembled, if requested.

ARTICLE VI—*Finance*

The President shall appoint, subject to the approval of the Executive Committee, two members who shall, with the executive secretary, constitute a board of finance to act in the capacity of trustees, to have custody of the funds of the Association, to have same properly audited, and to submit annually a report to the Association. Bills shall be paid by the executive secretary upon the authorization of the president.

ARTICLE VII—*Meetings*

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall hold an annual convention. The regular annual business meeting shall be held at the time and place of the annual convention, unless arranged for otherwise by the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

ARTICLE VIII—*Amendments*

The Constitution may be amended by a two-thirds majority vote of those present and voting at the annual meeting. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the preceding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Association thirty days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such amendment must receive the approval of the Executive Committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Association.

ARTICLE IX

Roberts' Rules of Order shall govern in all meetings of the Association.

CATALOG OF TESTING AND GUIDANCE MATERIALS

A free 1952-53 Catalog of testing, guidance, and reading-improvement materials is available from Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue, Chicago 10, Ill. Latest developments in psychological testing fields are included, as well as descriptions of available publications for guidance workers in the child study, youth service, and parent education fields. New reading aids, developed especially for workers in that field, are described in detail. Copies of this Catalog are available, without charge, either singly to educators or in quantities for distribution to teacher-training classes.

The Book Column

Professional Books

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS. *The American School Superintendency*. Washington 6, D. C.: The Association, 1201 16th St. 1952. 663 pp. \$5.00. Less than 100 years ago the American superintendency of schools was a new idea scarcely trusted and certainly not well established. The superintendency is an evolving office still being shaped by the tensions of the times which produced and continue to modify the character of public education. How it has evolved since its initial creation by boards of education toward the threshold of a new epoch which challenges men and women of ability and culture to seek a career of large usefulness is described in the book. It devotes its 17 chapters to the superintendency as it is developing in cities, in community school systems, in rural areas, and at county (intermediate) and state department levels. It pictures the job today through a 14-page questionnaire filled out by 3,146 superintendents. It reports salaries, tenure, and working conditions of superintendents, showing trends which have occurred during recent years and cites examples of good practice to illustrate administrative theory and point new directions in school administration. It emphasizes community relationships; how superintendents are learning to plan with their boards and communities, with professional organizations, and with individual members of their staffs and non-certificated employees, for the better administration of schools. It recognizes that the superintendency is a professional calling for which extensive professional training and interning are necessary, describes the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration, and proposes avenues for further improving the status of the superintendent. It was planned by the AASA Executive Committee to be supplementary to the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration currently financed in eight university pilot centers by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

BARUCH, D. W. *One Little Boy*. New York: Julian Press, Inc., 8 W. Fortieth. 1952. 352 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of a little boy who was in great trouble and the story of what a psychologist found out about the boy, his mother, his father, and all the other people responsible. Kenneth's mother and father, like most parents, tried to do their best for their child, and yet their own personal problems deprived the little boy of the most vital ingredients of growth and happiness—love and understanding. The story of his therapy, which of necessity included the re-education of his parents, is a heart-rending drama illustrating the confusion which can grow out of the actions of even the best intentioned people.

BRUBACHER, J. S. Editor. *Eclectic Philosophy of Education*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1951. 528 pp. \$4.50. This book provides—in a single

volume—over 450 selections from the original writings of every significant educational thinker from classical times to the present day. It brings the reader into direct contact with the men who are shaping educational destinies. While the book is intended for students in colleges of education so that they may have a firsthand knowledge of major educational philosophers and will learn *how* to think as well as *what* to think, it is one that the busy school administrator will find useful in refreshing his mind. The book is indexed so that any topic can be readily found.

BYRD, O. E. Compiler. *Health Instruction Yearbook 1951*. Stanford, Calif: Stanford Univ. Press. 1951. 246 pp. \$3.50. If your dreams are unpleasant, are you an exceptional person? Can "truth serum" make you tell the truth? Is a naughty child always the result of a parent's bungling? Scientists have made concrete answers to these questions within the past year and have unearthed many other health facts which could affect average American's daily life. Each year, the most significant of these are culled from the mass of health literature poured forth by newspapers and scientific and medical journals and presented in brief form in the *Health Instruction Yearbook*.

Dr. Byrd read through 1,500 articles and reported from sources such as the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, the *Congressional Record*, and the *American Journal of Public Health*. From these he has selected about 255 for presentation in brief form, taking those which present new ideas of healthful living and made a definite contribution to medical research. The result is an authoritative, concise, yet complete presentation of the latest information in the world of health education.

The book is divided into sections covering such fields as fatigue and rest, mental health and sickness, infection and immunity, safety, family health, and is indexed so that one may quickly find the latest information on Vitamin U, smog, smoking, or any of the other diverse subjects covered in this comprehensive yearbook.

DAVIES, D. R., and HOSLER, F. W. *The Challenge of School Board Membership*. New York 20: Chartwell House, Inc. 1951. 159 pp. School-board membership in the United States offers a critical responsibility and a challenging opportunity to our adult citizens. In tens of thousands of school boards across our land, members regularly are called upon to make decisions of policy and action which directly affect the development of our most precious heritage, our most valuable national resource—our children. The results of these decisions are not always immediately apparent. They lie deep within the slowly unfolding bodies, minds, and souls of our children, to be harvested in the future. The destiny of the America of tomorrow will depend much upon the vision of those who are charged with the responsibility for the educational program of today.

In no other country throughout the whole world is the control of education so close to the people. More than 400,000 school-board members in some 100,000 local school districts are the chief policy makers and legislators for our nation's schools. Here, in truth, is democracy at work. Our people have not chosen bureaucratic control by a far-off central government for their schools. They have voted, with few exceptions, to make the important decisions concerning their children's education within

each local district. As their representatives, they have chosen school-board members from among their midst to carry out their will.

This book of 10 chapters will serve as an excellent handbook for school-board members and also give them an understanding of the importance of his responsibility and present challenging opportunities to serve mankind through our nation's youth. School administrators, likewise, will find this book helpful in their work with school-board members.

DAVIS, D. R. and PRESTWOOD, E. L. *Practical School Board Procedures*. New York 20: Chartwell House, Inc. 1951. 205 pp. This book undertakes to show how many fine boards of education actually do work. The practices described are all in operation somewhere in the United States. It is composed primarily of an analysis and summary of actual reports from 285 boards in all 48 states, selected for their recognized accomplishments.

GRUENBERG, S. M. Editor. *Our Children Today*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1952. 384 pp. \$3.95. For almost three generations the Child Study Association of America has been keeping parents informed of the latest findings in all phases of child development. In constant touch with the work of experts in every field, it answers thousands of questions each year on parents' day-to-day problems. Once before, in 1932, the Child Study Association sponsored a volume, *Our Children*, that synthesized expert information as of that date. Now, in the light of the new findings and in response to a persistent demand for an all-around survey, *Our Children Today* is published.

The book opens with a midcentury view of America's children, not only statistically but also in the light of profound changes in family living in the war and postwar years. The second section, "The Early Years," deals with the organic, emotional, and educational needs of the very young child. The third section is concerned with discipline; the fourth, "Growing Up," with adolescence. The fifth, "Changing Goals in Education," re-examines children's learning and the way education is being adapted to our new knowledge. The sixth, "The impact of Our World," faces the problems of a world very different from adults' remembrance of their own childhood.

HENRY, N. B. Editor. *General Education*. Fifty-first Yearbook, Part I. Chicago 27: Univ. of Chicago Press. 1952. 391 pp. Paper \$2.75; cloth \$3.50. The present volume is a timely addition to the Society's services in relation to developmental procedures in the improvement of theory and practice in American education. The discussion is centered upon fundamental aspects of the social and intellectual needs, the interests and responsibilities of youth, and the objectives and procedures of the educational programs which the higher institutions are continuously endeavoring to adapt to the requirements these youth must meet for the achievement of their goals. The yearbook is presented with confidence that the faculties of institutions which are particularly concerned with the problems here considered will find suggestions and guidance which will prove useful in the evaluation of their present programs and in the consideration of possible steps toward the attainment of new objectives.

The aim of the yearbook is analytical rather than descriptive. It is intended to explore fundamental issues, principles, and problems rather than to summarize institutional programs or outline courses that have

been devised especially for general education. Descriptions of these programs and courses have appeared in many articles and books in recent years, and these sources are readily available. Analytical treatments, however, are not so numerous, and frequently the descriptive accounts do not relate practice to underlying questions and alternatives.

Education in Rural Communities. Fifty-first Yearbook, Part II. Chicago 27: Univ. of Chicago Press. 1952. 425 pp. Paper \$2.75; cloth \$3.50. For those now working in rural areas, the yearbook aims: (a) to suggest patterns of education oriented to rural life; (b) to describe trends and forces in rural life that may influence education; (c) to show how certain communities have achieved results through methods which may be adopted by other rural communities; (d) to recognize difficulties which may prevent promising programs from fulfilling their expectations.

For educators in cities, the yearbook aims to show the dependence of cities upon persons educated in rural schools and to give an understanding of problems and needs of education in rural communities and its importance in the national picture. Since urban centers reap the harvest of rural education, they should continue to contribute heavily to the support of education in rural communities. Rural life is no longer, if it ever was, completely distinct from urban life. Dividing lines between country and city are broken down by the two-way migration of farm people to cities and of city people to suburban and rural areas. For students of education, the yearbook aims to provide a better understanding of education in general through the study of rural communities and their schools.

KIRK, S. A., and JOHNSON, G. O. *Educating the Retarded Child.* Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1951. 444 pp. \$3.00. The purpose of this book is to (1) present the information from various sources, (2) synthesize the materials into a meaningful sequence, (3) develop programs of rehabilitation and instruction for these children, and (4) describe the teaching procedures used with them. It has been written for students, teachers, supervisors, administrators, psychologists, and others interested in the problems of children who are retarded in intelligence. It is designed to present a comprehensive description of the problem with suggested methods for its solution.

Throughout the book an effort has been made to include both theory and practice. The approach will give some perspective and lessen the tendency to consider mental deficit as a static problem which can be solved only by institutionalization. For the teacher, an effort has been made to present a theoretical basis as a matrix integrated with the principles and techniques for teaching the mentally retarded. For the psychologist, an effort has been made to relate the aims and facilities for teaching these children to the psychological problems faced in their diagnosis. For the pediatrician, the book presents a picture of social and educational potentialities so that he may direct the parent to existing facilities. For the social worker, it delineates the contribution of education toward the life adjustment of these children. The vocational guidance expert may find help in interpreting and organizing the abilities and disabilities of these children in the direction of better training and better placement.

KUHLEN, R. G. *The Psychology of Adolescent Development.* New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1952. 693 pp. \$5.00. This volume concerns psy-

chological development during the teen years. It is an attempt to examine and describe the essential nature of adolescence in the light of objective evidence provided by modern psychological research. The total analysis leads to the conclusion that adolescence has been a highly overdramatized phase of development, that it is not unusually stressful, that it is characterized not so much by a distinctive "psychology" as by a group of developmental problems, biological and social in origin, which typically but not necessarily occur during the second decade of life.

The book has been written in three parts, following an introductory chapter which attempts to set the point of view of the volume and to consider certain broad principles of human development. Part I considers physical, intellectual, and cultural backgrounds of adolescent development and adjustment and provides an overview of adolescent personality change as evident in changing interest patterns. Part II deals more directly with the nature of the adjustment process in adolescence and with the major areas of development which are "typically" adolescent. In this, the major portion of the volume, various facets of developing personality are examined—emotional and social development, development of values, educational development, emerging vocational orientation, the development of self-reliance and emotional freedom from parental ties. In every instance, evidence is presented to describe as carefully as now possible development *through* the period of adolescence.

The introductory chapter and the chapters of Parts I and II constitute the main treatment of adolescent development. A brief Part III, consisting of but a single chapter, recognizes the fact that practical outcomes are more apt to result from the study of development if there is some consideration of how understanding of the individual may be attained. An introduction to methods of studying individuals constitutes the final chapter of the book.

KYTE, G. C. *The Principal at Work*. (Revised Edition) Boston 17: Ginn and Co. 1952. 541 pp. \$4.50. This book presents definite guidance with respect of all the major functions of the elementary-school principal. The contents suggest how the principal should proceed as a constructive professional leader. His position in the school system is defined and explained. Next attention is given to his activities in planning his own work and in aiding all his co-workers in the school to plan their work. In subsequent divisions of the book, the principal's activities as an administrator, supervisor, public-relations agent, office manager, and professional appraiser are presented in considerable detail. Concrete illustrations exemplify procedures which principals have followed with success. References provide for the enrichment and enlargement of the study of specific duties beyond the possibilities of a single book covering all important functions of the principalship.

LANDES, J. L., and SUMPTION, M. R. *Citizens Workbook for Evaluating School Buildings*. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co. 1951. 43 pp. \$1.50. The manual is designed for the use of citizens who wish to appraise their elementary-, junior high-, or senior high-school buildings in terms of how well they fulfill the housing needs of education in the community, but may be utilized by teachers and building consultants with equal facility. A group of a dozen citizens, each provided with the *Workbook*, makes an

excellent task force for evaluation. With this *Workbook*, the appraisal of the school plant becomes a learning experience. Groups of citizens working together on the evaluation will learn not only from the *Workbook*, but also from the school people consulted and from each other. As a result of their experience, they will see the plant as an educational facility rather than a shelter of brick, mortar, and stone. With this manual as his guide, the average citizen who is reasonably familiar with the educational program can see for himself how his child's school rates functionally. He will recognize in what characteristics it is deficient and get some indication of what steps will be necessary to make up any deficiencies which may appear.

LOGASA, HANNAH. *Historical Fiction*. (Fifth Revision) Philadelphia, Pa.: McKinley Publishing Co. 1951. 285 pp. \$4.00. In this revision, one hundred and fifty listings have been added. As in the case of former revisions, there was a dearth of material on some phases of history, and an over abundance in others. Four changes have been made in the arrangement, kind, and point-of-view in material selected for this revision: (1) The introduction has been modified to conform with the newer methods of teaching; (2) The section "Islands of the Seas" has been transferred from the Appendix to the body of the work; (3) Included are more titles for the gifted and mature student; and (4) An entirely new section "Historical Relationships" has been added to the Appendix. This aims to suggest the cultural, ideological, geographic, scientific, and sociological factors that have an indirect, or direct, bearing on historical events. The body of the material plus the material in the Appendix should bring variety, and appeals to pupil interest with its resulting increase in historical understanding. This revision is based on the original pamphlet sponsored by the National Council for Social Studies, plus the later revisions.

MADDEN, WARD. *Religious Values in Education*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1951. 219 pp. \$3.00. This book suggests how education can in its normal and natural course help in building a spiritual outlook adequate to the needs of the young people of our age. The state in which the modern mind finds itself emphasizes the importance of such an undertaking. The old forms of religious belief and practice had an almost unchallenged impact upon these students as children during their formative and impressionable years. But as they reached the high schools and particularly the college, they were subjected to an increasingly intensified barrage of scientific and humanistic ideas and facts which influenced their whole outlook. Today, at the end of sixteen years of schooling, they find themselves bewildered and searching for a reasonable faith. The book does not pretend to provide an explicit religious outlook for the many people whom years of schooling have left stimulated but bewildered. But it does suggest ways of moving so that people can together build their own more common outlook.

The role of the schools in helping our civilization find spiritual direction is a matter of fundamental public policy. The book will be helpful as the people of this nation participate democratically in the determination of this policy. Fortunately, there is a growing number of citizens who are disposed to grapple with such problems in a penetrating, fundamental way before making up their minds. This book may be of use to them, as well

as to the educational and religious leaders who rightfully take the lead in stimulating consideration of such questions.

- McNERNEY, C. T. *Educational Supervision*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1951. 355 pp. \$4.00. Of value to supervisors, administrators, and teachers at all levels of our educational system, this new text presents the modern theory of supervision and shows, through the use of many examples, how to translate this theory into practice, thus increasing the effectiveness of the educational process as it is applied to all youth. The advantages of democratic group action within school and community organizations are constantly stressed and numerous examples of techniques for stimulating this type of action are presented. On occasion, the contrast between rejected and accepted supervisory practices is developed for the purpose of illustrating the advantages of newer practices. Throughout the text, an attempt has been made to employ a common-sense approach to modern supervisory problems, practices, and theory.

The treatment in this book is based upon a sound program of human relationships. Despite emphasis on the advantages of the group process, attention is given to the handling of individual teacher problems as well. The book shows the relationship of all phases of the educational program to the problem of increasing the effectiveness of the educational process as related to the development of all youth. Special topics covered include the modern program of teacher and supervisor planning; the program for teacher evaluation; the relationship of supervision to trends in curriculum practices; and the supervisors' analysis of and relationship to the community.

- OSBORN, ALEX. *Wake Up Your Mind*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1952. 295 pp. \$3.00. This book aims to help readers achieve greater happiness, for themselves and others, through enlivening their imaginations. The premise is simple and sound: "*The more creative we try to be, the more creative we become; and the more creative we are, the more we can get out of life.*" Creative imagination—how can we develop it? This question is completely and helpfully answered. More than 101 ways are suggested. For example, little children are alive with creative contagion—how can they help us? Reading, sedentary games, indoor sports, travel, hobbies, the fine arts, word-play, writing—what can we get out of them creatively? The early chapters tell what, why, and how. The later chapters deal with the matter of applying our heightened creativity to the problems of life; to marital problems, child training, home chores, to job and health problems—with mounting happiness and growing character as life attains a true maturity through creative development.

- PAYNE, J. C. Editor. *The Teaching of Contemporary Affairs*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 16th St., N.W. 1951. 251 pp. Paper \$2.50; Cloth \$3.00. This Twenty-first Yearbook, in its title and throughout its chapters, expresses a positive approach to the development of intelligent and effective public opinion. Citizens still need to guard themselves against bad propaganda, against efforts to persuade on the basis of emotional appeal, of prejudice, or partial or warped information. Clearly citizens need also to be aware of the role of informed and thoughtful opinion in a democratic society and of the role of individuals and groups, both in developing sound public thinking and in bringing it to bear on policy-making.

The schools alone cannot mould the public mind. That is the responsibility, in the main, of newspapers and magazines, of radio reports and commentators, of newsreels and television, of leaders in public life and specialists in public affairs, and of public political parties and civic organizations. But the schools can do much to give youth an understanding of the nature of public opinion and of its basic importance in local, national, and international democracy. The schools can introduce youth to a wide range of sources of information, and provide guidance in discriminating use of such sources and in critical thinking. To the advancement of such effort, at elementary, secondary, and junior college levels this yearbook is directed.

PITTINGER, B. F. *Local Public School Administration*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1951. 528 pp. \$4.75. This new text considers school administration as being that sphere of administrative responsibility which is concerned with the leadership of personnel in developing and implementing policies designed to maintain a sound educational program. This concept is then applied to the various fields of school policy decision. The author conceives of the school administrator as primarily an educator who is engaged in an administrative function, rather than as an administrator who is performing in a school situation. While the text emphasizes school administration on the local level, the book also seeks to orient the local unit in the larger state and national pictures.

The author attempts to conserve the good and eliminate the bad features of the "traditional" and "democratic" plans for personnel organization and management. Attention is continually directed toward the development of sound policies by sound personnel policies. Some of the recently developed procedures discussed at length in this text include—the "cost-of-living adjustment" feature of salary schedules; the inclusion of all school-employed personnel in the development of policies for personnel management; the close association of health and "discipline" in pupil management; and the in-service development of administrative officials.

Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth. Raleigh, N. C.: Health Publications Institute, Inc., 216 N. Dawson St. 1951. 363 pp. \$2.00. These Proceedings of the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth held in Washington, D. C., December 3-7, 1950, include the background of the Conference; selected addresses given before general sessions by outstanding speakers, who discussed the bearing of what is known about healthy personality development on what is done with and for children; selected technical papers dealing with certain critical aspects of personality development; summaries of the 31 panels and the 35 work groups. This Conference brought together people of many backgrounds, people with many points of view, people with a great variety of experience and knowledge to consider "how we can develop in children the mental, emotional, and spiritual qualities essential to individual happiness and to responsible citizenship, and what physical, economic, and social conditions are deemed necessary to this development."

Psychological Dynamics of Health Education. New York 27: Columbia Univ. Press. 1951. 144 pp. \$2.50. The 1950 Eastern States Health Education Conference of the New York Academy of Medicine dealt with one of the

most important phases of health education: the psychodynamics of health education. At this Conference all the major phases of this complicated problem were expounded by experts. "I know of no comparable treatment of this most important subject in any language," says Dr. Iago Galdston in the Introduction, "and the reader will find here not only illumination but also much good reading." Subjects discussed in the book include Adolescence; the Parent Group; the Older Age Group; the Dynamic Psychology of the Group and the Shaping of Individual Behavior; the Dynamics of Mass Media, Publicity, and Advertising; Unions and Health Education; Group Tensions and Conflicts and Their Relation to Motivation in Health Education; Social Conflicts in Relation to Health Education; Minority Groups; Emergent and Corrective Health Education; Motivation in Nutrition Education; Problems of Motivation in Venereal Disease Education; and Health Education and Hospital Services.

- SCHWEBEL, MILTON, and HARRIS, E. F. *Health Counseling*. New York 20: Chartwell House, Inc. 1951. 248 pp. This volume considers one of the most important problems in education: How can students be encouraged to improve their health behavior? Often we know what should be done to solve our health problems; too often we fail to put into action what we know. Methods are indicated through which teachers and counselors can assist others in recognizing their personal health problems, in understanding the necessity for action, in seeking professional advice, and in carrying out recommendations. Much emphasis is placed upon the need for client participation in the problem solution so that appropriate action will follow. The basic principles and illustrations from the authors' experiences are bound to be helpful in solving this problem.

Chapter titles are: The Health Counselor, Objectives of Health Counseling, A Philosophy of Health Counseling, The Desirable Qualities of the Health Counselor; The Dynamics of the Counseling Relationship, Techniques of Promoting the Dynamic Counseling, Relationship, The Case Work Approach, A Physical Symptoms Predominate, Where Emotional Symptoms Predominate, Referral and Resources, The Ethics of Health Counseling, and The Evaluation of Counseling.

- SHARP, GEORGE. *Curriculum Development As Re-Education of the Teacher*. New York 27: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia Univ. 1951. 142 pp. The purpose of this book is to aid educational leaders in analyzing the basic problems of re-education involved in curriculum development. It is written for those who have direct personal contact with teachers, an understanding of modern curriculum trends, and a desire to introduce them into their schools. The emphasis is on the initiatory phase of the process, and, while the study is directed toward no particular school level, a mental image of a secondary school was in mind throughout the writing. The main thesis is that the curriculum develops basically as the result of the development of teachers' personalities. Two major areas were investigated for clues to the problem. Broadly speaking, social psychology was searched for an understanding of the process of personality change, and psychotherapy was studied for ideas as to how to facilitate the process. What was found out has been set down in a comprehensible rather than a comprehensive form.

- SHARTLE, C. L. *Occupational Information—Its Development and Application*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1952. 439 pp. \$5.00. The second edition

differs from the first edition in two major respects. *First*, much material has been added in Chapter I, and throughout the book, about the uses of occupational information, particularly by counselors. *Second*, the book has been brought up to date regarding recently prepared information, such as the revised *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, career ladders in the Armed Services, new critical occupations and activities, and employment and training opportunities. Special sections have been added, which include a list of sources of occupational information, a completed job analysis report to illustrate format and style, the 1950 Census Classification of Occupations and Industries, and the New York system for filing occupational information materials. Other additions to the book include the North-Hatt scale of prestige ratings of occupations based on a nationwide sample, additional methods for making community surveys and follow-up studies, new data on jobs for the handicapped, and added units regarding the significance of occupational information—internationally, nationally, and locally.

As in the first edition, the text emphasized that the professional user of occupational information must receive sound training not only in what occupational information is, but likewise in how it is developed. Most prospective users will not attempt to become proficient in developing occupational information, but, if they are acquainted with the methods and have tried some of them, they should be better judges of the quality of the finished product and more fully prepared to apply information in counseling, placement, and other personnel functions.

The book is arranged so that students can profit by field visits for observing jobs and noting the physical and social environments in which jobs occur. Students can also visit schools, counseling centers, employment offices, and armed services recruiting offices to observe where occupational information is used or not used. It is believed that prospective counselors and other personnel workers should know what goes on in industry and at other counseling and placement agencies in addition to the particular locale where they plan to work.

STRANG, RUTH; GILBERT, C. B.; and SCOGGIN, M. C. *Gateways To Readable Books*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1951. 148 pp. \$2.75. The first edition of this annotated, graded list of books for retarded readers of high-school age, comprising some 700 titles, was published in 1944 and has been twice reprinted. This second edition follows the general arrangement of the earlier printings but has been expanded to include more than 1,100 titles.

The list contains about thirty different subject subdivisions, ranging from Adventure, Animal Life, and Aviation through Careers, Family Life, and Hobbies to Science Fiction and World War II. The majority of the books included are of fifth-, sixth-, and seventh-grade level of reading difficulty; only a few books of lower grade levels of reading difficulty were considered sufficiently interesting to adolescents to be included. The estimated level of difficulty of each book is noted in parenthesis after the title. Brief annotations describe the books in terms the pupils themselves will understand.

The introduction points out the features of content and style which make books attractive and easy for adolescents to read, describes the co-

operative method by which the list was compiled, and offers detailed suggestions to teachers and librarians on the use of the list. The classified list of books of general interest is followed by briefer lists of reading texts, magazines, pamphlet series, dictionaries and reference books, and simplified editions of classics. There are three indexes, arranged respectively by author, title, and level of reading difficulty.

- TENENBAUM, SAMUEL. *William Heard Kilpatrick*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1951. 332 pp. \$4.00. This biography chronicles the growth of a man and a philosophy of teaching which have profoundly influenced the course of education in the twentieth century. John Dewey says in his Introduction to this book: "The aims and processes of learning which have been so fully and concretely stated by Dr. Kilpatrick, form a notable and virtually unique contribution to the development of a school society that is an organic component of a living, growing democracy... it has been a great satisfaction to me personally to have been associated with Dr. Kilpatrick in the effort to develop a philosophy of education which will... render education progressive from kindergarten through the university, in the sense of promoting the progress of our common human life and of a society ever growing and ever more worthy, free, and just."

A discerning former student of Dr. Kilpatrick here reconstructs the life story of one of the most popular and influential faculty members of Teachers College of Columbia University in the last generation. In so doing, the author distills the numerous writings of Dr. Kilpatrick and illuminates the educational philosophy which has affected the work of tens of thousands of teachers both here and abroad. Those who have been privileged to study with William Heard Kilpatrick will find here an excellent portrait, and those who have not will find that this book supplies a cogent and helpful summary of the ideas at the heart of the best in modern education.

- TIDYMAN, W. F., and BUTTERFIELD, MARGUERITE. *Teaching the Language Arts*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1951. 444 pp. \$4.50. Designed to meet the needs of teachers in organizing and conducting a program of instruction in language, this text places emphasis on practicality and usefulness in content, organization, and treatment. The first and last portions of the book deal with general principles, while intermediate chapters are devoted to the handling of specific phases of the language program, including oral and written work, grammar, spelling, and handwriting. The authors bring together into an organized and synthesized whole the results of extensive research and the conclusions of recognized experts, without overweighing the manuscript with raw source material. A positive, direct position is recommended when justified by facts and expert opinion. Debatable issues are raised and defined, conflicting opinions cited, the need for further research noted, and alternative positions suggested.

This text has arisen from the need for a book which embodies research and current thinking and incorporates the accumulation of scattered source material. Offering a particularly functional and simplified order of treatment, the text begins with a survey of recent and present practices which is followed by a consideration of the general problems of organization and planning. Specific phases of the language problem are taken up

next. Generalizations, based upon a wealth of concrete illustrations, substantiate the text's inductive approach. Thought-provoking questions and practical exercises are provided throughout the text to stimulate independent thinking and study.

Books for Pupil-Teacher Use

ANNIXTER, PAUL. *Brought to Cover*. New York 19: A. A. Wyn, Inc. 1951. 247 pp. \$2.75. Here, collected in one volume, are the very best of the author's stories, each written in that sensitive and rare lyrical prose which captures the feeling and majesty of the great wilderness. The settings may vary—from Africa to Canada, as much as his subjects—from people to parrots, dogs, crocodiles and baboons, but they all have the same magical quality of warm, human elements set in beautifully described scenes of wild, remote country.

Here is the moving story of a teen-age boy and a pet white opossum who was almost killed for another animal's crime. Young love plays out its dramatic conflict against a fight with a ravening crocodile in a tale called "Dragon Rider." In "Kadiak," a hunter in Alaska is cornered by a bear and saves his life by a strange and wonderful ingenuity.

Varied and exciting, here are stories for young and old, told by a leading writer of outdoor stories.

BAILEY, MATILDA, and LEAVELL, U. W. *The World of America*. New York 3: American Book Co. 1952. 719 pp. \$3.20. This book has been designed for use in the eleventh grade. It is the fifth book of a six-book series for grades seven through twelve.

Two aims have been uppermost in the building of this book and of all the books in the series: (1) student interest in the selection of material and (2) development of reading power.

Each chapter in this book concentrates upon one important aspect of reading. However, comprehension, speed, and vocabulary enrichment are considered to be of equal and primary importance. Consequently, while each is developed in a single chapter, each is developed cumulatively throughout the rest of the book.

The time chart, "Across the Ages," gives a fair sampling of the distribution of the old and the new; and one, "Across the Nation," shows the wide span of authorship included. A wide selection of authors, of literary types, and of the history of American literature is included. In addition to reading helps, there are motivating introductions, questions for discussion and ideas for written communication, memory tests, annotated bibliographies, and footnotes. In it, is the literature of our American greats, both past and present, for study by eleventh-grade pupils.

The World of Endless Horizons. New York 3: American Book Co. 1952. 648 pp. \$3.12. This book for tenth-grade pupils contains selections by authors around the globe. The student reader is introduced to a wide variety of people and places. The types of selections include short stories, epics, biographies, narratives, short-shorts, sketches, essays, plays, and poetry. There are both old and new selections, though the majority of them are modern. Only the *cream* of the old is included. Modern writers are heavily represented because of their lively style and their treatment

of subject matter within the experience of today's students. The book is organized into chapters, each of which has its own theme. This thematic grouping enables a class to compare and contrast different treatments of the same basic idea. At the same time, grouping by literary types provides the opportunity for studying the different forms of writing.

A detailed plan is followed for teaching comprehension, reading speed, vocabulary, critical evaluation, and a host of other skills. Opportunities are provided periodically for each student to check his own progress in reading. A Reading Score Board enables the student to determine the rate at which he has read almost every selection. Like the other books of the series, it is characterized by selections that are of intrinsic interest to students. Each selection, of course, is of genuine literary value. Because knowing how to read is the keystone of reading enjoyment, reading skills are a major point of emphasis. They are woven into the reading materials so expertly that the good fun of reading is never lost. The text is accompanied by a *Teacher's Guide* of 59 pages which contains suggestions for each chapter as well as additional tests and a list of films and slides related to each of the ten chapters.

RATES, MARSTON. *Where Winter Never Comes*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1952. 320 pp. \$3.50. The author has set down fifteen chapters of information. The varieties of tropical man, the varieties of his culture, his clothes, his food and drink, his diseases, his physical backgrounds in rain forests and savannahs and on tropical seas, the truth about his resources and varieties of government—all these as presented by him have immediate interest and broad ultimate significance. This book is partly history, but it is largely natural history with emphasis upon that social animal, man. This is a new window on the world, not a travel book, but something far better; it is a book of interpretations which go beneath the surface into realities that have meaning for all humankind. It contains an index and a list of references.

BAUR, J. I. H. *Revolution and Tradition in Modern American Art*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press. 1951. 182 pp. \$6.00. This is not a history of modern American art. It is an attempt to define and trace the development of the chief movements in our painting and sculpture during the last fifty years, with occasional excursions into architecture and the graphic arts when these could help to clarify the central subject. It is little concerned with artistic personalities or with biographical information, but it does consider certain problems related to the position of the artist and his work in our present-day society.

The great diversity of our modern art is a measure, I believe, of its strength and vitality; but this has also contributed to the bewilderment of the intelligent public and has given, at times, a false impression of instability and confusion. This is a study of the underlying patterns of growth in our art. It shows the broad paths along which it has moved and is now moving and it maps the course of these as they cross and recross, join and separate, in an order that is complex but comprehensible.

The book begins with a chronological survey of American art in the twentieth century. Thereafter it describes first those movements which were or are revolutionary, either in subject or in form; and then the more traditional movements which have survived from the nineteenth century.

Each approach to art—expressionism, realism, abstraction, and the rest—is considered separately and traced from its beginnings to 1950, but the author also shows how they have blended and influenced one another.

BAXTER, LAURA; JUSTIN, M. M.; and RUST, L. O. *Sharing Family Living*. Chicago 6: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1951. 560 pp. \$3.00. This book has been the result of, first, *Sharing Home Life*, and later, *Our Share in the Home*, and the enthusiastic comments of many teachers and high-school girls concerning these texts. It represents a complete revision which brings the subject matter, organization, and illustrations up to date.

Like these earlier texts, this book is designed for beginning home economics courses in the junior high school, and presents a balanced introductory program in home economics. It is organized on the basis of the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupil. It aims to develop understanding and appreciation of the ideals of worthy home membership through the study of the many areas and phases of home economics.

The material covers three or four semesters' work. By omitting some parts, the book can be adjusted to two or three semesters. By including more lessons and making wider use of "To do in class" and "To do at home," the content is adequate for four semesters. The learning units are broken up into problems, each of which covers a lesson for one day.

This book has been written simply. The few technical terms with which pupils in beginning home economics classes must become familiar are explained when these are introduced.

BENNETT, P. A. *Books and Printing: A Treasury for Typophiles*. Cleveland: World Publishing Co. 1951. 433 pp. \$6.50. This book illustrates by its own format and design the great traditions that have influenced the appearance of books since Johannes Gutenberg invented printing from movable type. But it also has a great deal to say, to the admirer of beautiful books and to the student of typography on the subject of book design—and says it through the men who have had most to do with the beauty of typographic design and bookmaking in this country.

The present volume gathers together articles, poems, excerpts and essays by the foremost practitioners of the art of bookmaking. The result is a wealth of wisdom and wit, dealing with typophilic matters.

Here are a representative few of the more than 40 articles in this book: *First Work with American Types*, *Printers as Men of the World*, *Printing Should Be Invisible*, *The Ideal Book*, *Trade Books: Complaint in Three Directions*, *Investigation into Physical Properties of Books*, *Types and Type Design*, *The Fine Art of Printing*, *The Old and the New: A Dispute Between Juvenis and Senex*, *Some Tendencies in Modern Typography*, *The Amateur Printer: His Pleasure and His Duties*, *Harsh Words*, *Lettering and Calligraphy*, and *Notes on Modern Printing*.

A unique feature of this book is the fact that its articles are set in 20 different type faces. Thus the book can serve as a student's specimen book, affording an interesting comparison of the "color" and body of various modern machine-set composition faces, side by side, and at the same time supplementing the enlightened comments of the foremost craftsmen in contemporary bookmaking. More than 100 illustrations of printers' marks, decorative bookplates, specimen pages, etc., complement the text.

BROOKS, VAN WYCK. *The Confident Years 1885-1915*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1952. 637 pp. \$6.00. This is an inclusive picture of the

American literary scene from New York to San Francisco, from Chicago to New Orleans, during a period close to our time. It is an analysis of the influences which have had such great immediate bearing on the writers who have appeared since the conclusion of World War I, many of whom are figures of imposing stature in the literary world of today.

In an author's note, Mr. Brooks says: "With this book I bring to a close the series of historical volumes that bears the general title *Makers and Finders: A History of the Writer in America, 1800-1915*. I have taken this title from Walt Whitman's lines: 'Poems and materials of poems shall come from their lives, they shall be makers and finders,' lines that express the purpose and hope with which, in writing these volumes, I have tried to define the American tradition in letters. The series should be read in the following order: *The World of Washington Irving, The Flowering of New England, The Times of Melville and Whitman, New England: Indian Summer, and The Confident Years: 1885-1915*."

BROWNE, D. G., and TULLETT, E. J. *The Scalpel of Scotland Yard*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1952. 503 pp. \$5.00. This book, the life of Sir Bernard Spilsbury, is filled with the details of some of the greatest of British criminal cases. Anyone who likes the drama of the courtroom or who is interested in modern scientific methods of crime detection will find it a book of extraordinary interest. Sir Bernard Spilsbury's name has become legendary in the annals of Scotland Yard and his practices were accepted by police the world over.

BUCHANAN, LAMONT. *A Pictorial History of the Confederacy*. New York 16: Crown Publishers, Inc. 1951. 288 pp. \$5.00. In this large, handsome volume you will find the best of the great wealth of illustrations of the Confederacy—including the War between the States—from the delegates' first meeting to the final dissolution. Here are rare Brady photographs, Sheppard sketches, Chapman oils, Volck engravings; here are documents hidden since the 1860's; here are photographs and on-the-spot drawings by unknown Confederate soldiers, never before reproduced in any book.

You will read about, and see, all the great military men, statesmen, and heroes such as General Robert E. Lee, Jefferson Davis, Judah P. Benjamin, Stonewall Jackson, Jeb Stuart, and Admiral Semmes; the fighting on the battlefields of Gettysburg, Fredericksburg, Antietam; and on the home front the epic struggles by the women, and even the children, behind the lines of Richmond, Atlanta, and Vicksburg.

From collections, dusty files of magazines, historical societies, museums, and libraries throughout the South, this never-to-be-forgotten drama comes alive.

BUNDY, McGEORGE. Editor. *The Pattern of Responsibility*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1951. 333 pp. \$4.00. This book is an attempt to present the central public record of Dean G. Acheson as Secretary of State of the United States, from January, 1949, to August, 1951. Its method is mainly that of direct quotation; the principal witness is Mr. Acheson himself.

The basic source for this record is the *Department of State Bulletin*. This official publication contains nearly all of Mr. Acheson's statements on policy and a number of his extemporaneous comments, but occasionally additional material has turned up in the Department of State's Press Re-

leases. The give-and-take of Congressional hearings has also produced a large body of material from which the author has quoted extensively.

The editor, a Republican, attempts through Dean Acheson's record to show that America has a foreign policy, a pattern of responsibility broader and deeper than momentary self-interest. Indexed.

BYRNE, BRENDAN. *Three Weeks to a Better Memory*. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. 1951. 249 pp. \$2.95. This book presents ways in which one can improve his memory. Great political leaders and America's top industrialists have had remarkably good memories. Abraham Lincoln, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Andrew Carnegie were famous for their capacity to remember names. Jim Farley, who has written the introduction to this book, has the ability to call 50,000 people by their first names. His memory is not a product of mere chance. Remembering is a process that can be directed and improved. This book presents these scientific finds, not as high-sounding theories, but as twenty-one fascinating, entertaining chapters.

CARCPINO, JEROME. *Cicero: The Secrets of His Correspondence*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale Univ. Press. 1951. 2 volumes, 604 pp. \$7.50. For centuries classical scholars have argued the circumstances surrounding the original publication of Cicero's correspondence. In these two volumes the eminent French historian, Jerome Carcopino, advances an explanation of the reasons underlying its publication that throws an entirely new light on the character of Cicero. He attempts to prove that it was Octavian who, in the years following his break with Mark Antony (36-31 B.C.), published the correspondence as political propaganda to rally support for his new regime by publicizing the damning opinions of the old republican form of government held by Cicero, its outstanding champion.

Volume 1 lays the foundations on which this theory rests, with a meticulous examination of Cicero's letters, revealing various aspects of his family life, his financial affairs, and political activities. The picture of Cicero which evolves exposes his vanity and arrogance, his dubious loyalties, his chronic indecision; he condemns himself with his own words. In the second volume the author continues his analysis of the letters to show how they throw favorable light on Caesar and Octavian and discredit Octavian's enemies and the republican government. Here he reaches the core of the problem. His conclusions and the steps of reasoning which lead to them are both exciting and revolutionary and for the first time offer a plausible solution of the whole mystery.

CARTER, A. F. *No Small Tempest*. New York 16: Abelard Press. 1951. 233 pp. \$2.50. The *Valdai Importer* is a burly, blunt-nosed, oil-burning freighter, London to New York, thence to become engaged in coast-wise and West Indian trading, finally to return to the Thames, the long hitch over. This novel is the story of what happens at sea and ashore within the minds and hearts of some of the men aboard her. Especially is it the story of two of her officers. Surrounding them all is the ever-present sea, the sea itself, the ways of the sea, the life that sets all sailormen apart from others. Things move fast. A great deal happens between this book's covers.

CHASE, RICHARD. *Emily Dickinson*. New York 19: William Sloane Associates. 1951. 340 pp. \$4.00. This is the first extensive and authoritative treat-

ment of Emily Dickinson as a poet. Taken simply as the life story of a strange and attractive figure, the author's book moves with exquisite tact among the dubieties and ambiguities of an eccentric but always significant personality. It is a critical study. Its exposition of Emily Dickinson's spiritual universe and poetic method is full and meaningful, emphasizing the poet's originality and uniqueness. It relates her to the American culture of her time. Further, it puts her into relation with the great modes of poetry of the world, and the great types of thought and feeling.

The author is quite certain that Emily Dickinson is, with Walt Whitman, one of America's two great poets—that, indeed, she is a great poet quite without reference to nationality. But he believes that the true stature of her work has been obscured by the sentimental belief that it is all of equal quality. With what may be described as a sort of creative discriminatingness, he selects the very sizable body of work that he considers perfect and imperishable, separating it from that which is good but of secondary quality.

CHESTER, NORMAN. *Make Your Own Furniture*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1951. 150 pp. \$4.00. This book of almost 100 illustrations tells how to build articles for the home to make more comfortable and convenient living. Working drawings, sketches, and photographs supplement the how-to-do-it text. Not only does it give instructions for making attractive modern furniture, but it also shows how to plan the rooms of a house or apartment. Part I explains the practical aspects of modern design; discusses home interiors in relation to living habits, budget, personality, etc.; and gives basic instruction in the use of tools and wood. Part II suggests interior arrangements for every room in the house. Part III is devoted to various furniture-making projects. Finally, there are chapters which tell how to apply various finishes to woods and how to handle simple upholstery.

CHESTER, GIRAUD. *Embattled Maiden*. New York 19: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1951. 319 pp. \$4.00. The author's full documented biography is a full-length study of Anna Dickinson's long, colorful, and tragic life—a life in which she touched the heights of crusading fervor and sank to depths of recrimination and near-madness.

She was hailed during the Civil War as the Union Joan of Arc and at this stage of her career the 21-year-old Quakeress addressed Congress, with President Lincoln and his cabinet in attendance, to tell them how to end the Civil War and attain a lasting peace. Later Anna Dickinson became the Queen of the Lyceums, earning as much as \$23,000 a year by her lecture tours throughout the century. When financial reverses forced her to go on the stage, she starred in her own plays and even appeared as Hamlet with some success.

Always she was courageous and ready to do battle for the principles of freedom and equality for women to which she devoted her life. As she grew older, penury and illness caused her at one point to be adjudged insane. Her suit against her sister and the doctors was a *cause celebre* of the nineties, and the author's account of the trial is engrossing. Finally Anna, who had appeared like a meteor on the political horizon, as if born for the eventful times in which she lived, was abruptly eclipsed. Forgotten, she

lived on in Goshen, New York, for many years and died in 1932 at the age of 90.

COOMBS, CHARLES. *Young Readers Detective Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1951. 192 pp. \$2.50. Here is a volume that gives the young reader full play for his desire for detective work. All of the stories in this book are written about young boys and girls who become detectives and solve great mysteries in their home neighborhoods. The alert youngster who has noticed the F. B. I. bulletins in his local postoffice recognizes a criminal and calls the police. Another, tracking down a ghost, uncovers a robber's den. In all these stories, smart youngsters keep their wits about them and their eyes and ears wide open and put simple clues together to find that in their daily lives and home neighborhoods they may find the opportunity to be real detectives.

COURTIER, S. H. *Gold for My Fair Lady*. New York 19: A. A. Wyn, Inc. 1951. 370 pp. \$3.00. The story of this book is set against the background of the gold rush in Australia, which followed our own California adventure by a few years. It created an era of lawlessness and violence in which selfish ambition played itself against ruthless, cunning enemies. In this world women were scarce. Although Miriam Pampion, a Currency lass, married three times, Sam Lomarlock, her second husband, was the only man she ever loved. Cyrus Sprander saved her life, but she saw him as an uncouth and dangerous man. Hungry for the wealth and gold he promised her, Miriam married as her third husband Henry Cary, who was always bitter because he could not have her love. After the death of Cary, Miriam's oldest and most devoted son, Angus, strong and ruthless and endlessly ambitious, took up her continuing fight for wealth and power.

Against the changing social picture, as towns sprang up in the wilderness and the gentler arts of civilization crept in, Miriam and her son carved out a glorious name with a cunning play of wits, until she finally realized her long-sought dreams. But her past had marked her, and in her moment of greatest triumph, it brought about her downfall.

CRAIG, H. T., and RUSH, O. D. *Homes With Character*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Co. 1952. \$3.60. 368 pp. Here is a new text that covers the field of housing from A to Z. The book deals with the basic principles of choosing, buying, making, and repairing houses and furnishings. In addition it stresses the individuality needed to make a house, apartment, or rooms a home. It approaches the subject of housing from the family needs point of view. First it considers the satisfactions a family should derive from a home, how a family's money must be spent at different periods in its life cycle, and whether a family should buy, build, or rent. Then it discusses home planning and how to select and arrange furnishings. This emphasis on how a family lives in a home is maintained throughout the book.

Designed for senior high-school use in each grade in which housing units are taught, and for use in junior colleges offering terminal courses in home economics, it is flexibly organized so that it may be used for a variety of housing units. The design of the format serves as an aid to learning and teaching. The handsome type page is clear and open. Illustrations make up nearly two thirds of the book and are not only decorative but instructive. Line cuts demonstrate how to make curtains and slip covers, how to utilize space, etc. Six photographs in color point out how colors aid in decoration.

CRAWFORD, B. V.; KERN, A. C.; and NEEDLEMAN, M. H. *An Outline History of American Literature*. New York: Barnes and Noble. 1950. 345 pp. \$1.25. This is one of the publications in the College Outline Series. It provides for the student a compact and clearly outlined manual of accurate information. It places emphasis not only upon those authors most frequently anthologized but it also includes a large body of significant minor authors. It relates literature to life, vitalizes ideas and ideals, and integrates broad intellectual and philosophical connections. Cross-references and footnotes are used at strategic points so as to reduce to a minimum the necessity of directing pupils to other books.

CRUMP, IRVING. *Our Tanker Fleet*. New York: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1952. 244 pp. \$2.50. To what extent oil carriers have been developed and how capable their crews and officers are to carry out their urgent missions is graphically presented by the author. Besides pointing out the opportunities inherent in a career as a tankerman, he also tells numerous tales of heroic men and their stalwart ships that battled fire at sea, fought the Arctic ice, braved the Nazi submarine wolf-pack, were converted into baby flat tops, and served as fleet oilers.

DANIELS, W. M. Editor. *The Point Four Program*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1951. 207 pp. \$1.75. Newspapers recently featured a story headlined "U. N. Brains" about the hundreds of thousands of dollars a U. N. technical advisor had saved Thailand in a hydroelectric project. This is not an isolated incident and probably underlies much of the thinking behind the Point Four Program. The four refers to the fourth proposal of the President's 1949 inaugural address which reads, "We must embark on a bold new program for making the benefits of our scientific advancements and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of undeveloped areas." This address is the opening article in this latest Reference Shelf compilation. The four parts of the book suggest its scope: "The Concept; The Program; Who Will Pay for It; and, The End Product."

DAVIS, H. L. *Winds of Morning*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1952. 344 pp. \$3.50. The vitality of this novel is probably the result of three things; first, the author is an acknowledged master story-teller; second, he writes here about a section of America which he has known and loved all his life—the Middle Columbia River country of the Northwest; third, the characters are his own contemporaries and their story has the immediacy of events which have been personally experienced.

Amos Clarke, a hot-headed young sheriff's assistant, tells this story. It starts with an accidental killing. Complications arise and Amos is sent away to help an old herder move his horses into open country. The story of the trip is the story of this book.

DUNLAP, R. O. *How to Paint for Pleasure*. New York 22: Pellegrini and Cudahy. 1952. 143 pp. \$3.95. This book gives all sorts of practical hints and tips from a painter who has been working out-of-doors in landscape painting for the past thirty years. It is not a book for those who would make money out of their hobby, but a book for those who seriously feel the need to paint and sketch in their leisure time. It is not full of technical terms or critical jargon, but is written in a simple, easy style that can be followed without difficulty by the very shy or nervous beginner, as well as by those who have already had some experience with water color or oil paint.

This book also includes pastel work, and introduces a very interesting new medium of the artist-author's own invention—oil-paint and turpentine on glazed paper. An outstanding feature of the book is its sketch diagrams which sum up quickly the essence of the instruction in the text.

EISENBERG, JAMES. *Silk Screen Printing*. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight. 1952. 64 pp. 7 $\frac{1}{4}$ " x 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ ". \$1.25. The silk screen process is a recognized and accepted method of printing which may be quickly and easily mastered. The equipment required is low in cost compared to other printing methods; much of it can be made by anyone able to handle ordinary hand tools. The silk screen process is widely used commercially to print small quantities which would require expensive plates in other methods of reproduction. It is especially adaptable for printing on metal, masonite, and other difficult surfaces, and is very widely used for printing bottles and other containers.

Artistic ability is not essential in silk screen printing. Beginners will find it easy to master the process and produce excellent work. Ingenuity and originality will come as more experience is gained and as the silk screen printer becomes more conscious of other printing and lettering styles which are adaptable to silk screen reproduction.

This book tells how to build inexpensive equipment, and gives instruction on colors, paper, stencil methods, glue procedures, use of transfer film and lacquer film as they apply to silk screen printing.

In the schools, silk screen printing offers a rich field. As a crafts activity, it proves immediately interesting and absorbing to students. School events—plays, dances, football schedule posters—will give many opportunities for group projects of several colors and in large size.

GARNETT, DAVID. *The Essential T. E. Lawrence*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1951. 328 pp. \$3.75. The volume is more than a selection from all the available writings of T. E. Lawrence. It is an attempt to present his life as a whole in his own words. The extracts are chosen so as to trace his development as a preternaturally gifted schoolboy to a genius in warfare and in political warfare who later sought and found happiness and a refuge from his own overwhelming legend in working with his hands in the ranks of the R. A. F.

This volume is therefore more than the essence of Lawrence's writings: it is an essential book also in the other sense, to all those who find Lawrence mysterious and wish to know and understand him.

The editor has drawn largely on the letters, including a few unpublished ones, the diary, the Arab Bulletin, passages from *The Seven Pillars of Wisdom*, as well as material from other unpublished work.

GENTLE, E. J., and CHAPEL, C. E. *Baughman's Aviation Dictionary and Reference Guide*. Revised. Third Edition. Los Angeles, Calif.: Aero Publishers, Inc. 1951. 656 pp. \$7.50. The tremendous strides of the aviation industry during the last few years have prompted Aero Publishers to revise and modernize this standard reference.

Since the aviation industry of today has a much wider scope than that of ten years ago, it was deemed advisable to augment the basic information included in the previous editions by adding up-to-date information on atomic energy, electronics, guided missiles, helicopters, jet aircraft, meteorology, ordnance, radar, rockets, television, and other subjects intimately related to aviation. Furthermore, a great many other general

technical terms have been added to this edition, all of which are now accepted as standard terms of the aviation industry.

Where any new definitions appear to supplement one of the definitions in the first or second editions, they are presented for amplification, clarification, or to explain a new meaning of an old term.

GRENFELL, RUSSELL. *Main Fleet to Singapore*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1952. 238 pp. \$3.75. In this book the author has told, for the first time, the story of that stunning loss of Singapore to the Japanese in the early part of World War II with the swift and complete elimination of the Prince of Wales and the Repulse. As background for this great naval defeat, he supplies much information relating to the epoch between the two World Wars, estimating among other things the political influences of Roosevelt and Churchill. He concludes with a vivid account of the American action in the Coral Sea and Midway battles—the latter a turning point in the War.

GROSSER, MAURICE. *The Painter's Eye*. New York: Rinehart and Co. 1951. 256 pp. \$3.00. Like Clive Bell's discussions of Modern Art, which opened the eyes of the Twenties to the Impressionists, Expressionists, and Surrealists, the author's remarkable discussion in this book is full of fresh insights.

The author is a well-known painter and portraitist, whose works are owned by The Museum of Modern Art of New York and other galleries, as well as by private collectors. He approaches his discussion of painting from the common-sense point of view of the painter at work. What he has to say of the development of painting from Titian to Berard and Tchelitchev is told in simple, witty, straightforward terms, without recourse to learned—and evasive—formulas and labels. The book will be of interest to the amateur who likes to look at paintings and to the growing fraternity who like to paint for amusement in their spare time. But this book also reaches out to the critic and the young art student; and the author's views on the academizing of Modern Art and the necessity once again for the painter to revolt from the strait jacket of accepted approaches will undoubtedly be hailed—and denounced—by artists as a significant—or outrageous—discussion of today's conventions in painting.

The painter, says the author, has always seen the world more clearly than his nonpainting contemporaries; and therefore it takes the public time to catch up and to see the world in new and revealing terms. In tracing the conventions and revolts in painting from the Venetians to the Impressionists, and beyond to the now accepted school of Modern Arts, the author gives painting new value and new meaning.

HANSEN, HARRY. Editor. *The 1952 World Almanac*. New York 15: World Almanac, 125 Barclay St. 1952. 912 pp. \$1.10. Signing of the treaty of peace with Japan and the collateral security agreement, and of the treaties of defense with Australia, New Zealand, and the Philippine Republic, is named by the World Almanac and Book of Facts for 1952 as the major event of 1951. In presenting the controversy over the signing and its results the Almanac cites the tremendous consequences for the future of the United States in this open notice to the Communist regimes that this country will fight to preserve the independence of the Pacific nations.

The World Almanac continues the program begun in 1886 of giving in one annual volume information and statistical data that make history and enable Americans to understand the great questions of their times. In

amplified articles the 1952 World Almanac reports, for quick reference, the many outstanding events, including political, economic, sports, etc.

It will be especially valuable for its comprehensive resume of the important events of the last twelve months, and it will ably fill its function as the source of a wealth of information on an incredible variety of subjects.

- HARRISON, H. H. *Outdoor Adventures*. New York: Vanguard Press. 1951. 128 pp. \$2.75. Here are fifty-one adventures in the out-of-doors, capturing in pictures and text the excitement and wonder of the world of nature. In some of the most remarkable outdoor photographs ever taken, the author follows Billy and Jane through their discoveries of the fun that lies hidden in their own backyard, the park next door, or the woods within easy reach.

In the text accompanying each adventure, the author not only explains the particular event in the animal, plant, or bird world, but he also shows how every child can follow, through the four seasons, the same path to wonderment and knowledge.

- HART, W. W., and JAHN, L. D. *Mathematics in Action*. Third edition. New York: D. C. Heath and Co. 1952. Book 1, 336 pp., \$2.12. Book 2, 304 pp., \$2.24. Book 3, 364 pp., \$2.40. This is a 3 book series for grades 7, 8, and 9. The central purpose of the series is to convey an appreciation of the role of mathematics in many phases of modern life and to develop skills, habits of thinking, and methods of solution that will carry over into real life problems. The series offers a flexible teaching program. Each book contains a clearly marked basic course. Clear instruction, in simple style, keeps the problems within the range of all pupils. At the same time, an ample number of optional topics, marked by stars, provides a challenge for average and above-average pupils. Understanding of the fundamental operations and skill in them are dominant objectives. In the Third Edition prices, facts, and statistics have been brought as nearly up to date as possible. The systematic tests on fundamentals and the re-instruction in essential topics make each book complete in itself, with formulas a unifying element throughout the series. Many illustrations contribute to the text.

- HERZBERG, M. J.; GUILD, F. C.; and HOCK, J. N. *Better English*. Boston: Ginn and Co. 1952. \$2.28. 410 pp. This book for the 7th grade is one of a 6 book series for grades 7 to 12. Those for grades 7, 8, and 9 are now available and those for grades 10, 11, and 12 are on the way. This book like the other two for the junior high-school grades are devised so that teachers and pupils alike can set a goal for themselves, map a campaign, see where they're going, and know when they get there. This definite plan of instruction provides a 1-2-3 development of each topic—(1) *Getting the Facts*, (2) *Using the Facts*, and (3) *Testing Your Mastery of the Facts*. In addition to this type of organization, each book is arranged so that material on any particular subject is grouped in one place. For example, all material needed for writing reports is concentrated in one chapter: work on consulting sources, taking notes, organizing material, as well as writing the report. This plan of instruction has been specifically evolved to aid both teacher and pupil to carry on the work in communication in an atmos-

phere that challenges effort and shows how to apply it. By analyzing each problem step by step, even the child who finds it difficult to express himself in words experiences a gratifying degree of success.

- HIGMAN, H. W., and LARRISON, E. J. *Union Bay*. Seattle: Univ. of Washington Press. 1951. 325 pp. \$4.00. Birds and animals and plants live harmoniously together in a marshland around which man has built a giant city. The story of this book is one of an intriguing relationship between man and wildlife.

Within the sound and path of thousands of people and machines, the wildlife community feeds, reproduces, combats living enemies, and fights the weather. The city and the marsh seem oblivious of each other, yet their competition is strong.

Man cuts a new channel and birds that once made their homes there no longer visit the marsh. Ships bring flowers from half-way 'round the world that thrive and become useful citizens of the wildlife community. In this book, the author describes life in the big city marsh.

- HILL, KATHARINE. *Rome Is The World*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1951. 304 pp. \$3.50. Young Gaius Statilius, patrician son of a Senator, returns from the Grand Tour to take his place in Roman society and, as an only child, to fulfill his parents' wish for a suitable marriage. But Gaius' immediate involvement with the lovely Ragna disrupts the smooth course of his parents' plans.

Gaius, despite the cool response of Ragna to his efforts to show her the city and supply her with the best of everything, is considered highly eligible by most of the single girls in Rome and his eventful bachelor career makes most entertaining reading. So do the scenes of life in the *insula* or apartment house next to his home where Gaius installs his lovely acquisition.

- HINSLEY, F. H. *Hitler's Strategy*. New York: Cambridge Univ. Press, 32 East 57th St. 1951. 266 pp. \$3.75. Here, with full documentary evidence, is the unfolding of the problem which kept all the world awake in the long years of war, the story of Hitler's own lonely intentions: what he thought he was achieving in invading Norway, in preparing for (and never implementing) the invasion of England, in making a partner of Mussolini, in seeking to win Franco and Gibraltar, in attacking Russia. It is a drama of gradually increasing inevitability of defeat for an overriding man whose fatality was himself.

The book depends for its existence upon the capture of the complete naval archives. Other documents and authorities are freely used and referred to, but these naval records alone show well the internal difficulties when a supreme leader has to deal with experts.

- HOPKINS, T. J. *Trouble in Tombstone*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1951. 192 pp. \$2.50. Sam Chalmers made a powerful and bitter enemy when he bought Bigelow "Bull" Newman's herd and forced Newman to accept his own debt notes in payment. The only man who had tried previously to collect on these notes ended up dead.

Settling down outside Tombstone with plans for a peaceful and prosperous future as a cattle rancher, Sam made it plain that he would fight only if his men or his cattle were threatened, but he knew he was in for trouble when Newman and a notorious gang of outlaws moved into town.

He managed to stay out of the bloody battle for power when Curly Bill and John Ringo lined up against Doc Holliday and Wyatt Earp, but when Newman, who headed the outlaw forces, killed one of Sam's men, he had to take action.

Elected sheriff of Tombstone, Sam warned the outlaws to "get out or get killed," and Bull Newman was not the only man to learn that Sam Chalmers kept to his word with blazing guns.

HUSTON, McCREADY. *The Prodigal Brother*. Chicago 6: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1951. 247 pp. \$3.00. This satiric novel of human relationships in Philadelphia's upper class centers around two brothers, Lawrence Kinlock, settled and successful, and the erratic Roger, returned home after a somewhat checkered career in both business and marriage.

The situations that develop with Roger's divorced wife, Lawrence's wife, her religiously inclined niece, Leora, and the sophisticated Austrian, Trudi Kaus, provide material for both social and individual satire of which the author makes excellent use.

Lawrence, "unofficial board chairman of Philadelphia's organized altruism," and Leora's husband, who has been given a violent inoculation of liberalism, supply an element of humor, unaware as they both are of the contradictions in their own motives.

HYDE, G. M. *Journalistic Writing*. Fourth edition. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. 1946. 492 pp. \$2.46. In this third revision of this book, the author offers in a fourth form his ideas for introducing beginners—in high school or college—to the fascinating field of journalism.

Out of the twenty-five years of experiment in school journalism, certain fundamentals are emerging. (1) The student publication—both in high school and college—is discovering a function more interesting than that of a mere "activity." It is taking on a public-relations task of interpreting the school to its community, the college to its constituents. The need of this was taught by the depression and the war. (2) Journalism in the classroom is more sharply dividing vocational from non-vocational. (3) For the beginner, journalism is a project of English composition.

The book is divided into two parts—Part I deals with types of journalistic writings while Part II deals with the student newspaper and magazine discussing practical problems of publishing and preparing for print.

JONES, J. H. *Fifty Billion Dollars*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1951. 647 pp. \$6.00. From lending a Kentucky barber \$20 to replace shears, strop, razor and soap washed away in an Ohio River flood, to putting up \$200,000,000 to finance a single steel plant in wartime—that's the range of the far-flung work of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Here the author, who was with the RFC for thirteen years and headed it for twelve, and his co-author, Edward Angly, tell the story of the work of an agency which was as colossal as it was controversial.

When our economy tottered during the depression days, the RFC loaned and invested billions to rescue banks, railroads, real estate interests, mortgage and surety companies from ruin. It ladled out aid to cities and states, as well as loans to such self-liquidating projects as Al Smith's Jones Beach development and Herbert Hoover's San Francisco Bay Bridge. But it was not only great enterprises and corporations which re-

ceived help. Small businesses and individuals benefited too—a Pasadena Negro received \$500 for a remarkable self-help plan, and a drought-stricken woman got \$20 to keep the wolf from her cabin door.

World War II gave the RFC its second big job. The author tells of the almost unlimited powers granted the agency in June, 1940, and how it used them to stockpile scarce materials from milkweed to magnesium, to build a tin smelter and pipelines, and a \$700,000,000 synthetic rubber industry, and finance countless other war enterprises. How, in short, its activities spread over the globe.

JONES, THOMAS. *Lloyd George*. Cambridge 38, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press. 1951. 346 pp. \$5.00. The enigmatic career of David Lloyd George is traced from his birth in 1863 to his death in 1945: the Welsh village lad and the Liberal Nonconformist background that influenced his whole life and sharply distinguished him from all other British Prime Ministers; the fearless champion of the unpopular Boers; the energetic proponent of drastic social and financial reforms; the fiery orator; the fiercely hated and as fiercely admired stormy petrel of prewar British politics; the powerful and victorious wartime Prime Minister, now the "Welsh Wizard" and a world figure, at the summit of his power throughout the making of the peace. Then with the drama characteristic of Lloyd George's career, the decline begins: the Conservative party, alienated by his disregard for party regularity and his coalitionist temper, throws him over, and he spends the last part of his life—almost a quarter of a century out of office—in journalistic and literary activities, still a gadfly in Parliament, still the proponent of constructive social policies, still the same fiery Welshman.

KALISH, S. E., and EDMOND, C. C. *Picture Editing*. New York: Rinehart and Co. 1951. 223 pp. \$4.50. This book deals with the editing of pictures. It is written for all those "photojournalists" who want to get the most from pictures. Although it is primarily for those who deal with the editing of pictures, it is also for the photographer; for the cameraman with a sense for live pictures, be he press, magazine, or serious amateur photographer, is in one sense an editor. It is he who selects the angle and the instant for a picture. Part One, "Pictures and Picture Editing," analyzes such intangibles as the "feeling" for pictures, judgment, developing picture ideas, handling photographers, dealing with the public. Part Two, "The Picture Editor at Work," deals with specific problems—picture size, scaling, cropping, print quality, retouching, caption writing, the picture page, layout, rotogravure, and color.

The handling of pictures is probably the most nebulous of editorial techniques. Consequently, little will be said that is dogmatic. The reader will not find a set of rules or a formula on how publications can get the most out of the pictures they use. He will find, instead, a flexible, pattern for successful picture handling. Although the problems described are those characteristic of a publication of medium size, they and the solutions suggested are basic.

KAMERMAN, S. E. *Little Plays for Little Players*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 8 Arlington St. 1952. 345 pp. \$2.75. There is a steady demand for plays suitable for production by primary grades. But the qualifications for plays of this type are probably more rigid than for any other group. They must be especially easy to produce, requiring simple properties and set-

tings, and yet they must excite the imagination of the young child. The parts must not be difficult to learn, and the costuming possibilities should be interesting but not elaborate. Moreover, it is most desirable to have plays with a flexible number of characters for the early grades, so that a large proportion of the class may participate.

All of these fifty plays are complete dramatic units, but for those groups that prefer to create their own dramatic material, the plays may be used as a framework to be expanded and developed to fit the class program.

KERR, R. N. *100 Years of Costumes in America*. Worcester 8, Mass.: Davis Press, Inc., 121-11 Printers Building. 1951. 80 pp. \$4.95. This book presents the story of what the well-dressed women wore during the most colorful and exciting century in our Nation's history—1850—1950. It's a pageant of styles in dress and dress accessories passing in review as you turn the pages. It's like a family album. Illustrations give you complete details of full fashion costumes and accessories. Grouped for quick reference and convenience in ten-year periods, the individual charms of each decade in styles are highlighted. The book contains more than thirty full-page fashion design illustrations, thirty-nine detailed sketches of accessories of the periods, illustrations and text showing fashion progression by ten-year periods, information on how six different art media were used to render the illustrations, and many uses—fashion design and illustration, period puppet costumes, correlation with American history and literature, mural paintings, plays, commercial art, and television.

KIERAN, JOHN. Editor. *Information Please Almanac, 1952*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1951. 896 pp. Paper \$1.00. This editor in addition to making the necessary revisions to the previous edition to bring the statistics, etc., up to date, has included many new features. News and chronology are presented in a new way as an experiment in improving the book. The index has also been improved with the idea of making the information in the book more easily found. As usual, the *Almanac* contains a wealth of facts, essential for reading and study.

KUPPER, WINIFRED. Editor. *Texas Sheepman*. Austin: Univ. of Texas Press. 1951. 152 pp. \$3.00. Robert Maudslay was a young Englishman who came to the high hills of West Texas in 1880 to seek his fortune. The fortune eluded him but he found instead a full and interesting life which, as he expressed it, "seemed to be inexorably tied up with sheep." Between his seventy-fifth and eightieth years, goaded by his nieces who had always been fascinated by his tales of the sheep trails of the past, Robert Maudslay preserved his memories in a series of letters addressed to one of his nieces, Amy Thalman (Mrs. Frank M. Jones). The result was what J. Frank Dobie, noted writer of the Southwest, has described as "one of the most interesting and literate frontier narratives I have ever read," high tribute indeed from a Texas cowman!

LASLEY, S. J., and MUDD, M. F. *New Applied Mathematics*. Fourth edition. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1952. 399 pp. This text has become the standard text in thousands of classrooms throughout the country. This fourth edition includes an entirely new chapter on all aspects of insurance; new emphasis on Problems of the Consumer, a thorough revision of credit and installment buying, renting and owning a home, borrowing, banking, savings, investments, building and loan associations; adaptable material

for slow and superior students; and a flexible organization that makes it easy to teach the text as a teacher may prefer. The authors have carefully followed the guidance plan of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. Mathematical concepts are explained in such terms as the standings of major-league baseball clubs and weekly allowances. Inevitably, students learn that mathematics is a necessary tool. The text contains many illustrations, a wealth of spot "Inventory Tests and Exercises," glossaries and vocabulary lists, achievement tests, a teachers' manual and key which includes teaching suggestions, objective tests, and answers to all tests and exercises in the text.

LEWIS, D. B. W., and HESELTINE, G. C. Compilers. *A Christmas Book*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1951. 344 pp. \$3.50. This is an anthology of ballads, chronicles, songs, stories, poems, carols, recipes, and anecdotes of all ages that pertain to the Christmas season.

LONN, ELLA. *Foreigners in the Union Army and Navy*. Baton Rouge 3: Louisiana State Univ. Press. 1951. 735 pp. A neutral observer might have wondered why the Civil War was so named. Hearing Union soldiers singing as they marched past on their way to the front, he might have caught strains of the Marseillaise, the rousing battle song of the Swedes, or one of the many German or Polish marching songs. Seeing their varied dress, the observer would have been further confused by the international character of this war.

Foreign enlistments accounted for a fifth of the Union forces, with Germans alone numbering 200,000 troops. Many regiments and even divisions were composed entirely of one nationality and retained their distinctive native uniform.

Many soldiers with experience in the European revolutions attained officer rank in Union service, even that of major general. Foreign-born appeared among the chaplains, surgeons, engineers, in the signal service and bands. A French regiment carried with it to the field a distinguished chef, and vivandieres appeared not only with French regiments but even with a German unit.

The author in this book has performed the monumental task of tracing the military careers of the more important individual soldiers as well as describing the organization, movement, and performance under fire of large groups of enlisted men of foreign origin.

The book opens with a brief survey of the migration of the various foreign elements in the North, followed by a careful account of the bewildering array of foreign units in the Union army—the Gardes Lafayette, Cameron's Highlanders, the Schwarze Jäger, the Scandinavian Regiment, the Irish Brigade, and other regiments of mixed nationalities.

MacMAHON, BRYAN. *Children of the Rainbow*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1952. 512 pp. \$3.95. This is the story of a segment of Irish life in the mid-twenties of the present century. It is the story of Finn Dillon, leader by grace of wit, charm, and deviltry. Around him, through his life, rally the youth and age which make up the entrancing, panoramic drama; and when word comes home to Cloon that Finn Dillon is dead, it is for him the broken-hearted people raise perhaps for the last time in Ireland the *Caoine*, the age-old Gaelic lament.

There is a multiple story woven through these characters who stand out with the unforgettable brightness of color. There are the beautiful

girls, Shoon Lawlee and Madcap O'Neill; the atheist cobbler, Galileo; Old Font, wellspring of ancient knowledge; Brink-O'-the-Grave, midwife and layer out of the dead; Metal Belly, the bellman, and many another rare character.

MAYSE, ARTHUR. *The Desperate Search*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1952. 216 pp. \$3.00. But the crash did not happen then. Vince watched the plane rise again and dwindle into the fog, carrying his two children to some final, terrible, destination. Ardagh was a bush pilot, operating throughout British Columbia. He knew the treacherous fogs, the jagged mountains, the sullen ocean beyond. And all his lonely love centered on a little boy and girl aboard the doomed aircraft. Vince had flown search for other planes lost in the waste stretches beyond Vancouver. But these were *his* kids, eight-year-old Don and Janet, going on three. When others gave up he continued with the desperate search. Julia Thorne, a reporter assigned to the case, believed with him that the children were alive and supported him heart and soul.

McDERMOTT, J. F. Editor. *Up the Missouri With Audubon*. Norman: Univ. of Oklahoma Press. 1951. 238 pp. \$3.75. In the summer of 1843, Edward Harris, gentleman-farmer from New Jersey, accompanied John James Audubon on an expedition up the Missouri River to the Yellowstone. Although the journal kept by Harris during the six months' journey has long been considered a valuable record and a highly readable narrative, it has, nevertheless, remained unpublished in its entirety until now.

Departing from St. Louis on April 25, the group explored the distant rivers and traversed sprawling prairies, pursuing their interests far beyond the frontier, into present Nebraska and the Dakotas, and on to the headwaters of the Yellowstone—these naturalists with their notebooks and sketch pads oftentimes venturing alone and on foot where few frontiersmen chose to go.

The diary kept by Edward Harris during the trip is complete—from the daily expenditure of ammunition and food to carefully recorded descriptions of fauna seen along the way, of buffalo hunts, of encounters with Indians both friendly and hostile. Of interest, too, is the companionship of Harris, who was instrumental in making the trip possible, and Audubon, the greatest of all ornithologists.

This volume is Number 15 in the American Exploration and Travel Series.

MILLER, JR., E. G. *The Standard Book of American Antique Furniture*. New York: Greystone Press. 1937. 856 pp. (8" x 11") \$7.95. Here is an authoritative book on this subject. It is complete in that this single volume with its more than 1650 illustrations cover all periods and styles and pieces from the days of the Pilgrims right through the Victorian times. It is a book done by an expert and a most distinguished collector of antiques. It will serve as a guide to identifying and buying antiques. It describes and illustrates a wide variety of each kind of furniture from the finer pieces to the more simple. Each of these kinds of furniture is broken down into periods and types, sources, and makers. The person is given complete information through text and illustrations as to what to look for in all types and kinds of furniture. The author explains the various woods, legs, kind of feet used, lacquers, veneers, marquetry, turnings, carvings,

applied decorations, handles, knobs, upholstery, and many other major and minor features of all types of furniture. Here is also help in assisting the individual to determine the dates of antiques. Styles of periods are explained, tricks and methods of dishonest antique dealers are discussed, and advice is given to the amateur collector. The book contains an extensive index so that one can readily find the information sought.

- MOORE, RUTH. *Jeb Ellis of Candlemas Bay*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1952. 238 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of Jeb, a Maine boy who wanted to be a fisherman, as his ancestors had been before him, and how he became one. It is also the story of a wonderful old man, Grampie, the last of those sturdy forebears, because Jeb's shiftless father couldn't be counted. (Though it was Guy's needless death by drowning that hastened Jeb's manhood.) And it is the story of Jeb's upstanding mother, who loved her oldest son with such a fierce sense of protection that it was hard for her to understand he was no longer content to be a boy when she so desperately needed a man.

- MUELLER, J. H. *The American Symphony Orchestra: A Social History of Musical Taste*. Bloomington: Indiana Univ. Press. 1951. 447 pp. \$6.00. This book tells the complete story of the American orchestra from its beginnings a century ago down to the present day—the personal history of the American symphony orchestras and the music they played. Its pages reveal the struggles and conflicts of the musical world: the private dramas of virtuoso conductors, tales of the philanthropic sponsors, many of whom were themselves good amateur musicians, and the perpetual struggle to develop American taste.

Not only does the author devote separate sections to leading orchestras in New York, Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, Philadelphia, Minneapolis, St. Louis, San Francisco, Cleveland, Los Angeles, Pittsburgh, Detroit, Baltimore, Rochester, Indianapolis, and Washington, but he also includes colorful character portraits of such prominent conductors as Theodore Thomas, Monteux, Stokowski, Toscanini, the Damrosches, and Koussevitsky. This book will provoke widespread discussion among followers of music, aesthetics, and Americana.

- MUNDT, ERNEST. *A Primer of Visual Art*. New York 22: Pellegrini and Cudahy. 1952. 42 pp. \$3.00. The author, director of the California School of Fine Arts in San Francisco, presents a basis for the understanding of contemporary art and its application in advertising, posters, typography, textiles, display, interiors, industrial design, architecture, sculpture, photography, drawing, and painting. Contents include step-by-step analyses of experiments with two-dimensional form, color, texture, three-dimensional form in space, and pictorial form and subject matter. Each of the 92 steps is illustrated. In 8½" × 10½" flexible binding, spiral bound, for convenient use.

- NEWKIRK, L. V. *General Shop for Everyone*. New York: D. C. Heath and Co. 1952. 269 pp. \$3.20. Here in one book is all the text material needed for a well-rounded General Shop course. In this single basic text, students will find fundamental information about job planning, drawing, woodwork, metalwork, electricity, plastics, and other common phases of general shopwork. The text is based on the author's twenty-five years of experience as a teacher and supervisor of General Shop classes. It was or-

ganized and written specifically for such classes. It offers units of instruction that have been tested in classrooms and have been proved to work well together in a General Shop course. It contains the most basic and widely used units of instruction in the Industrial Arts field.

Each of the five units gives information about a particular industry and its workers; explains how to use common hand tools and simple machines; calls special attention to safety precautions; gives useful consumer information; provides projects, problems, and review questions; describes and illustrates tools and materials for interesting hobbies to enjoy in the home workshop.

Suggested projects for each unit include articles that appeal to students in rural areas as well as in cities, to girls as well as to boys. These projects were chosen for their effectiveness as teaching tools. They do a thoroughly efficient job of helping students to understand and to learn. The text is illustrated with photographs and drawings. All the illustrations are *new*—made especially to fit the text.

NEIFELD, M. R. *Neifeld's Guide to Instalment Computations*. Easton, Pa.: Mack Publishing Co. 1951. 434 pp. \$6.00. This book is a guide to instalment payment computations. It is designed for finance companies, bankers, automobile dealers, instalment vendors, building and loan associations, lawyers, court officers, students taking a business course in secondary schools or colleges and consumers who buy on time. Emphasis is on practical application for the many workers in the field of consumer credit.

The first chapter of the book is a review and a reference source for the first-year high-school mathematics useful in the computations. As the presentation is designed for practitioners, explanations are not too rigidly developed from a mathematical sense.

Every effort has been made to keep the presentation clear. A minimum of symbols is used, a glossary of consumer credit terms is included, and new terms are carefully defined when introduced. No gaps are left in the chain of reasoning—the reader is led by easy steps along the road to comprehension and ability to use the arithmetic of consumer credit.

The arrangement of the material makes it equally useful to the business man as a practical manual, to the teacher as a reference work, and to the student as a textbook. In discussing each topic, first consideration is given to actual instances requiring its application. This is followed by a presentation of the arithmetic involved and by one or more practical problems worked out in detail. Then there are exercises to give a good working knowledge of the method used.

While the text is suitable for a university course in the subject, teachers in secondary schools, and even elementary schools, can use it for short period lessons and projects in the arithmetic of instalment payments. Material can readily be selected to fit any period of time in consumer education courses that may be allotted to the arithmetic of instalment payments.

NORMAN, CHARLES. *Mr. Oddity—Samuel Johnson*. Drexel Hill, Pa.: Bell Publishing Co. 1951. 360 pp. \$4.00. This book is about the greatest talker who ever lived, and there is consequently a great deal of his talk in it. As a man, Johnson is more complicated than his obvious and outward

physical defects have indicated. No biography of him after Boswell can be entirely satisfactory which fails to take into account his attitude toward his mother and the long series of ideal attachments which mark his life. The evidence has always been present, together with the names of the women, and the marvel is that it has not heretofore been integrated in the accounts of him.

- O'CONNOR, R. J., and O'DALY, E. C. *Enjoy Your Driving*. New York 11: Oceana Publications, 43 W. 16th St. 1952. 144 pp. \$3.50 cloth. Student driver education is being introduced into many high schools throughout the country. This is one new subject which no one refers to as a "fad" or "frill." The frightening rise in the number of fatal accidents and the increase in liability insurance rates have aroused the public. The terrible harm done by reckless teen-age drivers, and the many inexperienced adult drivers has convinced everyone that students must be taught the rules of the road in school. This text was written by professional people for school use. The approach is designed to catch and hold the attention. There is no dull lecturing, but challenging, stimulating presentation which prods the student into thinking for himself. The technical material is presented clearly and simply so that the student of average or below average reading ability will read it easily. There is a quiz at the end of each chapter. It is not a text, in the traditional sense, but an amusing game. Suggested activities are designed to promote experiential learning projects, excursions, practical inquiry, and subjects for discussion are suggested in a form which will make students want to learn more.

This book is essentially in the social studies field. It is designed to promote good citizenship, and the realization that each individual must contribute to the safety and well-being of society, which is the essence of democracy. Maps give a concrete stimulus to the study of the geography of the United States. An understanding of law as protecting the best interest of every citizen is an inevitable outcome of reading this book.

The short paragraphs, the vocabulary, the quiz at the end of each chapter, and the illustrations make it a valuable tool in improving the reading ability of the adolescent. Suggested discussions provide further integration in the language arts. This is a new subject for most schools. It is one that we must teach, and teach well. It is a challenge to the schools to help solve a serious problem of our modern mechanical world.

This is tested material, written after ten years of experience in teaching the subject to high-school boys and girls. A text book which the students like and can read insures a successful course.

- PAYNE, STEPHEN. *Young Readers Stories of the West*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1951. 192 pp. \$2.50. Here is described in simple language the work of the cowboys as they proceed with their daily tasks. Whether it be a range round-up or a ranch episode, all of the western terms are clearly defined and explained, and the young reader gains valuable vocabulary by the use of the simple device used by the author.

These are all stimulating action stories of real western life told from the point of view of the participating young reader.

- RAWLINS, G. M., and STRUBLE, A. H. *Chemistry in Action*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1952. 583 pp. \$3.60. This second edition is somewhat shorter than most textbooks designed for use in high-school classes.

However, the authors believe that it is a thorough, one-year course and that the mastery of the subject matter included will not only prepare pupils to pass a college entrance examination but will also enable them to understand and enjoy their environment much more fully. Realizing that mathematics is difficult for many students, the authors have taken pains to present step by step those parts of chemistry in which mathematics is necessary for understanding. Illustrations were carefully chosen to clarify and supplement ideas.

This book contains discussions of many modern chemical developments. Atomic energy, new methods for controlling insect pests, the metallurgy of magnesium, synthetic rubbers, and plastics are among the new things that have been included and related to the chemical principles on which their development was based.

High-school courses ordinarily include a small amount of material on organic chemistry. Because this branch of chemistry has grown so rapidly in recent years and because the chemistry of man's body, his food, clothing, and shelter is so predominantly organic chemistry, the authors have made this unit of the text somewhat longer than usual. It is considerably longer than the other eight units of the text.

At the end of each problem, two groups of questions are provided. The questions in Group A are arranged in the sequence of topics followed in the problem. The questions in Group B often require the use of information not included in the text. These questions may or may not be assigned. Each unit ends with a series of questions designed to help the pupils recall and review the major topics of the unit. At the end of each problem, pupils will also find references to articles and to books which they can use if the pupils want to go beyond the necessarily brief textbook treatment of many topics.

ROVERE, R. H., and SCHLESINGER, A. M. *The General and the President*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus and Young, Inc. 1951. 346 pp. \$3.75. On April 11, 1951, a memorable and momentous conflict got under way. On one level, it was a conflict between a General of the Army and his commander-in-chief, the President of the United States. On another, and a far more important level, it was, as the authors of this book say, a war for the American mind. In this book, the story of that conflict is told and its issues elucidated and appraised. In addition, the authors have prepared a searching biographical sketch of Douglas MacArthur, a study of the fall of China, and a penetrating essay on the future of America.

SCHOLES, ARTHUR. *Fourteen Men*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1952. 314 pp. \$4.50. There is always fascination in tales of true, and lonely adventure. Even today there remain undeveloped frontiers and tremendous experiences that try the hearts of men. Sailing oceans on a raft, seeking the heights of unconquered mountains in the mid-twentieth century are epic tales that are thrilling mankind. Now comes another such chronicle, *Fourteen Men*, surely one of the most absorbing, the most gripping of recent experiences. It is the first hand account of the remarkable Australian expedition to Heard Island, a fragment of land separated from Australia by 2,500 miles of the wildest and loneliest seas in the world, and so minute that it is not to be found on any but the largest of maps.

SIFFERD, C. S. *College and You*. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight, 1952. 111 pp. \$2.50. This book helps young people planning to go to college, or interested in attending college, to think through the problem of selecting a school, of meeting entrance requirements, and assists them in more quickly adjusting to the new environment.

The author is in an unusual position to observe and note the difficulties that college freshmen have in adjusting to the different requirements of college life. Until two years ago he was responsible for the program of residence hall counseling for both men's and women's residence halls at the University of Illinois. In that work he saw many young people come to college almost totally unprepared to budget their time and money and unaware of the many opportunities offered—both academic and social.

The book is written in the form of letters from a father to twins, Eleanor and Tom, during their first year of college. It is illustrated in two colors. Topics discussed are: Are you going to college; choosing a college; the cost of a year at college; entrance requirements; the first week; choosing your classes; homesickness; sororities and fraternities; how to study; campus activities; guidance and counseling agencies; grades; budgeting your time; dating; budgeting your money; other races and religions; working while in school; student government; honoraries; living with other people.

SINGER, KURT. *The World's 30 Greatest Women Spies*. New York 16: Wilfred Funk, Inc. 1951. 321 pp. \$3.50. Here is a galaxy of feminine operators in the most dangerous and exciting of all professions—a profession where no mercy is expected or given, often a profession which separates the spy from any possible protection by the power she represents. Each chapter in this book is a real-life thriller. New and hitherto unrevealed facts about many famous women in espionage are given in these pages; and the spotlight falls also upon several important heroines of the underground.

This is the first book to contain FBI Director J. Edgar Hoover's account of the American atom spies who sold for \$500 the plans of the improved Nagasaki bomb—Harry Gold, David Greenglass, Ruth and Ethel Rosenberg. And the U. S. Atomic Energy Commission has used the chapter: "The Woman Behind Klaus Fuchs" in their just-published Official Report on Atomic Espionage.

SMELSER, MARSHALL. *An Outline of American Colonial and Revolutionary History*. New York: Barnes and Noble, 1950. 271 pp. \$1.25. This outline is presented as an organized digest of the essentials of American Colonial and Revolutionary history for students who need a preliminary over-all view of the subject for those who may require background in related courses such as American literature, and for laymen who have some curiosity concerning the period. Advanced students may find it valuable in organizing their knowledge, and both students and instructors will possibly discover it to be of service as a guide to the standard sources and secondary works.

The "topics for further study," which are listed in the form of problems at the end of each chapter, in each instance require the student to do some independent reading before undertaking their solutions. The writer also believes that most of them can be adapted for assignment as

term thesis topics. The outline is divided into seventeen chapters and can be used for either a semester or a year course in the subject.

- SMITH, BRADFORD. *Bradford of Plymouth*. Chicago 6: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1951. 338 pp. \$5.00. In these pages William Bradford is as credible and human as your next-door neighbor. His humor, his humility, his indomitable courage, his religious fervor, and his unshakable sense of justice show him as a man of heroic proportions, making us wonder why America, which loves heroes, has been so slow to discover him.

From the tender years of adolescence when the orphaned Bradford discovers religion in a forbidden non-Anglican creed, through the trials and persecutions which led to the flight into Holland, through the romance and tragedy of his marriage to young Dorothy May, to the hazards and near disaster of the little settlement at Plymouth, Bradford's story is full of the natural drama of great events.

- STAPP, A. D. *Captive of the Mountains*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1952. 187 pp. \$2.50. Seattle, at sea level on Puget Sound, is a bustling metropolitan city. But fly forty miles due west and you are already into mile-high mountains, and below you, reaching toward the Pacific Ocean, are three thousand square miles of the most rugged terrain in the country. You are over the wilderness of mountains and rain forests of the Olympic National Park.

It is in that wilderness that most of this story takes place. The characters and incidents are fictional.

- STEELE, W. O. *The Buffalo Knife*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1952. 177 pp. \$2.25. When Andy Clark's family decided to travel a thousand miles by flatboat down the Tennessee River on the dangerous voyage to the French Salt Lick, it should have seemed exciting enough for any boy. Instead, Andy longed to go on the overland trail with Uncle Az who was a Long Hunter. For Andy dreamed of being a Long Hunter too when he grew up and of owning a shining hunting knife like the one Uncle Az carried.

In the weeks that followed, however, Andy found that life on board the flatboat, and the terrifying night when the boat ran aground and Indians tried to set fire to it with flaming arrows. Just as dangerous were the wearying, frightening miles of rapids, crosscurrents, and rocks at Muscle Shoals. At the end of the voyage, Andy had truly earned the right to own a buffalo hunting knife, and even Uncle Az had to admit that the flatboat journey had been more venturesome than the overland trail, for he hadn't seen a single Indian—not even a bear or a wildcat!

- STERNE, E. G. *Amarantha Gay M. D.* New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1933. 166 pp. \$2.50. As a child in the South, during the bitter aftermath of the Civil War, when the only things of value were personal effort and ability, Amarantha Gay realized that she, although a girl, must find her own way of service and "belong to herself." The story begins years later. It conducts Manthy, in spite of the ardent protestations of young Chris Thomas, to a northern college, one of the first to be founded for women, and presumably Smith. But here she finds feminine propriety almost as formidable an antagonist as masculine prejudice.

- STICKNEY, RUFUS; STICKNEY, B. G.; HORTON, H. J.; and WEIL, H. S. *Office and Secretarial Training*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1951.

400 pp. This third edition covers the entire field of office and secretarial training. The student works in an office, attending to the many details of a busy organization as various duties arise. The background material presented is followed by assignments designed to familiarize the student with modern secretarial activity. With this background, the student undertakes his work with knowledge and confidence.

One important feature of the book is the cumulative nature of the assignments. In a natural sequence, the secretary engages in typical daily activities. Particular duties are not confined within chapters; there is a repetition of such duties as meeting callers, taking dictation, handling mail, using the telephone, preparing checks, using reference books, and other activities that occur frequently.

In Chapter 1 the student applies for the position of secretary. After obtaining the position, the student begins work immediately. Each chapter's assignment represents what might be an actual day's work in an office. New problems are introduced in each chapter, but the assignments give the secretary an opportunity to apply the knowledge from previous chapters.

Dramatization is used freely. Instructions to the student are worded so that the executives address their remarks directly to the secretary, who completes each job with a high standard of efficiency and presents it to the proper executive for approval. The instructor represents the office manager and the various executives, and interrupts the work of the secretary occasionally to dictate letters that may be found in the Teacher's Manual. The students are given an opportunity to use their judgment in disposing of the most important tasks first and to exercise initiative when the occasion arises.

When necessary, the telephone is answered by students, who carry on conversations with the office manager. The desk memorandum is used throughout the course, so that it becomes a real aid to the student in making notations about assignments, as well as in reminding executives of important events.

STRONG, JOANNA, and LEONARD, T. B. *A Treasury of the World's Great Heroines*. New York 16: Hart Publishing Co. 1951. 192 pp. \$2.50. In these pages pupils are introduced to such inspiring people as Barbara Frietchie, Amelia Earhart, Joan of Arc, Molly Pitcher, Dolly Madison, Pocahontas, and Florence Nightingale. They will meet the great women who have contributed most to our culture: Elizabeth Blackwell, the first woman doctor; Mary Lyon, the first American woman to found a college for girls; Elizabeth Fry, the Quakeress who reformed the horrible conditions in English prisons; Evangeline Booth, who led an army of the Lord to march on hopelessness; Susan B. Anthony, who defied public opinion to win suffrage for her sex; and other feminine luminaries who have brightened the path from despair to progress. Each of the stories is accompanied by a full-page illustration by Hubert Whitley. These pictures, which portray the central action of the tale, give the pupil a clear, true idea of the costumes and background of the times.

STUART, MATT. *The Smoky Trail*. Chicago 6: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1951. 221 pp. \$2.50. Luke Lilavelt has placed his Window Sash brand on a cattle empire by lawless and bloody methods. While a miser and a coward, he

has been able to blackmail Dave Wall into acting as his trouble-shooter. Dave's unpopularity becomes second only to that of Lilavelt. Only a few discerning people admit to see a decent streak in Dave.

But Dave balks at the job of liquidating the upstanding rancher, Bart Sutton—who has a most attractive daughter. He saves Sutton's life and sets out to track down Lilavelt, his former boss. In the process, Sutton's ranch is saved and Dave proves himself, after a tremendous struggle, an honest man and a very tough one, too.

- SUTTON, R. J. *A Stamp Collector's Encyclopaedia*. New York: Hutchinson's Scientific and Technical Publications. 1951. 263 pp. An entirely new illustrated work designed to provide both tyro and expert with an invaluable and constant work of reference to "the king of hobbies, and the hobby of kings." About three thousand references, conveniently and alphabetically arranged, include interpretations of the phraseology in general use; meanings of many of the overprints and abbreviated and alphabetical notes; a complete glossary; brief gazetteer of all the recorded stamp-issuing countries and authorities in the world; coinages; populations; and translations of many hundreds of foreign phrases and words that appear as inscriptions on stamps.

To the beginner, this book will prove a trusty guide and friend. It will enable him to elucidate the strange words and symbols he finds upon his specimens, and to arrange them in their correct order under their own headings. It will explain the complex jargon used by the expert, make clear the meanings of so many of the phrases and words employed, and be an indispensable addition to his bookshelf.

- SYME, RONALD. *Champlain of the St. Lawrence*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1952. 189 pp. \$2.50. When young Samuel de Champlain first left France in the year 1582 to sail across the North Atlantic in a small, ill-provisioned schooner, he hoped he might see the newly discovered great river beyond the Newfoundland fishing banks, but it was not till 1603 that he got the chance. The broad, majestic St. Lawrence, gateway to a new continent, was Champlain's road to adventure. Along its shores he met and mingled with the strange but friendly Montagnais Indians, fought their enemies, and founded Quebec. It was only after long years of struggle against the brutal northern winter, the savage Iroquois, and the inertia of his own countrymen that Champlain really established New France and opened up the vast interior of North America to Europeans.

- VIETOR, J. A. *Time Out*. New York 16: Richard R. Smith Publisher, Inc. 1951. 194 pp. \$3.50. "For you the war is over." This guttural and exuberant announcement greeted the author when his parachute deposited him roughly but safely in the snow on the banks of the Danube. There followed ten days in solitary, long interrogations and journeys in sardine-packed box-cars before he reached Stalag Luft I, a P. O. W. camp at Barth, Germany, near the North Sea. There, while a prisoner, the author wrote the major part of his book; he completed it in the United States in 1949.

The daily round of life of the imprisoned American and British aviators who were shot down over Germany is depicted vividly and with humor. The author's ability to maintain his sense of humor in the prison atmosphere and to understand and analyze his fellow prisoners is shown in the astute characterizations of many of them.

The illustrations are drawings made by the amateur artists among the prisoners, snapshots taken surreptitiously and cartoons which appeared in the German newspapers during the war, some of which have surprising relevance to our relations with Russia today.

- WALSH, JOHN. *Boxing Simplified*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1951. 124 pp. \$2.95. Bout-winning fundamentals, illustrated point-by-point with more than 100 accurately posed photographs, are explained in detail in the text. The author, head boxing coach at the University of Wisconsin, presents organized, and supervised amateur boxing as practiced today in colleges, high schools, and recreational centers. His instructions, suggestions, and advice are intended for the coach who supervises boxers, individually or in groups, as well as for the student who wishes to learn boxing. In a simplified way, this fundamental approach shows any coach, regardless of how much experience he's had, how to put across an efficient instructional program.

Every phase of boxing, from selection of equipment right up to the time the boxer steps out of the ring after a tournament bout, is carefully examined. Early conditioning of boxers, drills, workouts, the all-important fundamentals of stance and punching, each phase in turn is described in detail.

- WARD, BRAD. *The Spell of the Desert*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1951. 219 pp. \$2.50. Clay determines to wreak his vengeance on Randall through Randall's beautiful sister, Della, and to that end he abducts her. The scene shifts to Comanche Springs, an isolated but vital source of unfailing water. A gang of outlaws also comes to the Springs to hide out after their latest holdup, taking both Clay and Della captive. When the Springs are found by a huge band of Comanches to be in the hands of white men the real trouble begins.

- WATT, H. A.; HOLZKNECHT, K. J.; and ROSS, RAYMOND. *Outlines of Shakespeare's Plays*. Revised edition. New York: Barnes and Noble, Inc. 1949. 220 pp. \$1.25. No play synopsis, it need hardly be said, can take the place of its original; and this little volume is not presented as a substitute for the dramas themselves. To be appreciated and understood, Shakespeare's plays must be read carefully in full—not in the dilution of outlines or abridgments. In preparing this book, the authors had in mind only to provide student and lay reader with a convenient device for reviewing plays previously read, and for acquiring some general facts about Shakespeare's life and times and some simple suggestions and aids for studying his dramas.

- Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language*. Encyclopedic Edition. 2 Volumes. Cleveland 2, Ohio: World Publishing Co. 1951. 2112 pp. (7¼" x 10") \$22.50 per set. Rapid advances in the social and physical sciences, the arts, in every phase of today's living, have rapidly brought new words into use, lent new meanings to old words. To keep pace with these changes requires more than bringing up-to-date an old dictionary, it requires analyzing and redefining, checking, and rechecking of words. A staff of 90 trained dictionary editors and associates, assisted by specialists in the arts and sciences, has labored for over ten years in developing this dictionary. The result is a dictionary with a fresh, modern treatment of every definition and illustration, complete with today's accepted American pronunciations.

Special pains have been taken to make the definitions practical, informative and readable. Generalities are avoided in favor of graphic, descriptive words. More than 3,500,000 words of text—the equivalent of 22 novels—are used to redefine the large vocabulary.

The pronunciations are based on the speech of most of America. Variations are noted and fully treated, and both foreign and American pronunciations are given for geographical and biographical names. The simple, precise key is based in part on the International Phonetic Alphabet symbols. Particular attention is given to examples of usage, and especially to popular American idioms, those expressive phrases that make our language so vital and colorful. Word sources have been carefully traced back to their Indo-European roots. The etymologies employ the findings of latest scholarship, and are arranged in a clearly understandable, logical manner.

Type and format are planned with study and care to make the pages inviting and easily readable, with attention to selection of type faces and logical arrangement of the various elements of each definition.

Attention has been given to relevant meanings of words in such fields as the natural sciences, business and industry, world affairs. In the social sciences in particular, the student or the general reader will find this Dictionary especially valuable. There are: 1249 new pictures, designed to help define the work, to explain and demonstrate the subject; 6 full pages of new illustrations of airplanes, architecture, leaf forms, constellations, etc.; 12 pages of new full-color illustrations, birds, flowers, animals, marine life, insects, trees, precious stones, etc.; 5 full page charts—basic English, alphabets, geology, chemical elements, and periodic table—; and 143 profile maps in silhouette, designed to pinpoint the specific key areas.

In addition, the supplemental encyclopedic material virtually comprises a book in itself—368 pages replete with pertinent, timely reference material, authoritative and up-to-date. To mention just a few sections: directory of U. S. colleges and universities; population statistics, based on 1950 U. S. Census; full text of the Charter of the United Nations; the Declaration of Independence and the U. S. Constitution; the U. S. Presidents, the Vice Presidents, and Cabinet Officers; a dictionary of synonyms, antonyms, and analogous words; geographic features of the world, populations, distances, etc.; forms of address, weights and measures; special signs and symbols; and 16 pages of full-color maps including both polar and mercator projections of the world.

Each of the two volumes are bound in levant-grain leather-like, water-resistant fabric, gilt embossed and gilt stamped. Speckled top edges.

WEISSBERG, ALEXANDER. *The Accused*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster. 1951. 540 pp. \$4.00. This is a personal story of imprisonment in Russia. The accused is Alexander Weissberg, a trained physicist, known and respected throughout the world. He served as a consultant to the Russians in their research and heavy industry for six years. Then he was accused by the G. P. U. of such crimes as plotting to assassinate Stalin and Voroshilov and for three years he was imprisoned. Finally, released under the Soviet-Nazi mutual extradition agreement, he got out of Russia, only to be turned over to the Gestapo. As a scientist, he watched and studied

the methods used to produce false confessions in prison and in the great treason trials. As an individual who has once been full of enthusiasm for Soviet society, he saw what the Purge and the secret police did to the lives of millions of people. He is one of the few who stood up under accusation, fought back and survived to tell the free world his story. Arthur Koestler, author of *Darkness at Noon* states in the preface: "It is a tale which brings closer to the reader than any published before, the inner mechanism of the most extraordinary terror regime in human history."

WHITE, R. W. *Building Practice Manual*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1952. 315 pp. \$3.40. Here is a book devoted exclusively to the actual problems encountered by building craftsmen on the job. A job-by-job approach presents the materials, methods, and mathematics of any unit of work together so that they are easy to learn—easy to use. This book is useful for teaching students and apprentices or as a handy reference book for all those engaged in building, estimating, or supplying materials.

All types of construction needed in ordinary residential and commercial building are covered. The first part of the book is concerned with the mathematics of both materials and methods in carpentry and masonry, while the second part deals with estimating the quantities of materials needed for different jobs. The focus of attention is always on practical problems, unnecessary or overly theoretical material being excluded. There are 283 architectural drawings that are used wherever graphic representation will help to clarify a problem. This serves to familiarize the student with this form of diagram.

The Appendix consists of 80 tables of figures covering topics such as: standard sizes of materials; nominal and actual sizes; related dimensions in various constructions; proportions and quantities of ingredients for mixtures of concrete, cement, plaster, and stucco; quantities of materials needed for given areas of wall, chimney, floor, etc.

WIDDEMER, MARGARET. *Lady of the Mohawks*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1951. 320 pp. \$3.25. From the stirring annals of New York State in those tumultuous days preceding the outbreak of the French and Indian War comes this romantic story of an Indian princess, Deyonwadonti, "the Woman Who Is Two Women," known also to the English as Molly Brant. Beautiful, highly intelligent daughter of a Mohawk sachem, she was educated at the English school in Schenectady so better to understand in the white man's ways when she took her rightful place at the head of the Women's Council of her tribe.

Molly was the niece of exotic Caroline, "the Flower," wife of New York's Indian Commissioner, the famous Colonel William Johnson, who almost alone kept the powerful Indian Confederacy of the Six Nations friendly to the British. At Fort Johnson, where Molly came often to visit, life was full and exciting, under constant threat of French encroachment and hostile Indian treachery. And at Fort Johnson Molly found two men in love with her—Johnson and handsome young Francois Joncaire, brother of the colonel's bitterest enemy.

The book presents the everyday affairs of the colonists in their hinterland communities as well as in luxurious old Albany. And fascinating pictures of Indian civilization are woven into the action at Upper and Middle Castles, seats of the Mohawk chiefs, and in the more primitive settlements of the Oneidas and Cayugas.

Following the proud tradition of her royal birth, Molly was equally at home at a formal English dinner or in a war party of Seneca braves. In satin and doeskin, with tomahawk and goblet, she joined the life-and-death struggle to preserve the vital Covenant Chain allying the Iroquois with the English.

YATES, R. F. *Antique Reproductions for the Home Craftsman*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1950. 202 pp. \$4.00. This book is devoted entirely to the making of fine reproductions in pine, maple, and cherry. It contains practical information that makes this hobby valuable and interesting. For those interested in antiques, there are valuable tips, generally known only to experts, on how to determine the age and authenticity of eighteenth- and early nineteenth-century rural furniture. It contains detailed descriptions with numerous photographs, plans, and dimensional drawings showing clearly how to reproduce such coveted pieces as corner cupboards, chairs, blanket chests, clock cases, etc., from this period of increasingly rare and costly antiques.

It contains information on various kinds of woods, the old joiner's tools, how they are used and how their use can be duplicated with present-day tools, methods of making joints, methods and materials for reproducing an antique appearance and antique finishes, oldtime hardware and how to duplicate it, stenciling and painting, and the painting and decorating of walls and backgrounds to carry out the eighteenth-century atmosphere of the furniture. The cost of constructing many of these pieces is very low. For example, a factory-made reproduction of a corner cupboard that usually sells for around \$125 can be built in a home workshop for about \$15.

YIM, LOUISE. *My Forty Year Fight for Korea*. New York 19: A. A. Wyn, Inc. 1951. 313 pp. \$3.50. The author has fought two heroic fights—the first to throw off the yoke of foreign domination in Korea, the second to overcome Asian prejudice against women. Here, in her own words, is the story of a fight for freedom that approaches some of the greatest of all time.

Only a very small number of Asian women ever learn how to read or write. Learning how was the author's first step in her fight for freedom. From here a vast new world opened to her. She thrilled to the story of Joan of Arc and determined to follow in her footsteps. At the age of twelve she joined the Korean underground to fight against the Japanese and was arrested, imprisoned, and tortured for her activities. But no matter how great the suffering, she refused to betray Korea or give up her fight.

When she was twenty-four years old she came to the United States to study. Finding her English inadequate, she enrolled in the first grade of a Los Angeles public school, despite the fact that she was a graduate of two high schools and held a teacher's license in Korea. At the end of seven years of hard work, she had received her A.B. and M.A. degrees from the University of Southern California. In addition to receiving her education, she operated a truck farm and several gas stations in Los Angeles. With the profits from these she returned to Korea in 1932 to establish the Central Teachers Training School in Seoul—now Central University.

Back in Korea, she found the underground organization badly deteriorated, and she set to work to build once again a strong resistance move-

ment. She returned to the United States once more before the outbreak of World War II, in an attempt to raise money for the University. When World War II started, she hurried back to Korea where she worked harder than ever to build an effective underground movement to fight the Japanese. And again she was arrested, tortured, and beaten.

Today Louise Yim is the official delegate to the United Nations of the South Korean Government in the matter of the dispute between North and South Korea which has brought about such tragedy and bloodshed to both Korea and the United States. She is the only woman member of the Korean legislature. Her fight for the eventual liberation and unification of her country goes on. Here is an unforgettable story of a woman patriot.

YOUNG, STARK: *The Pavilion*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1951. 194 pp. \$2.50. These are the reveries of a man who has known intimately a great number of interesting people: Eleonora Duse, Eugene O'Neill, William Faulkner, Doris Keane, Sherwood Anderson, Charlie Chaplin, Ellen Glasgow, and others. He has corresponded with Henry James, who, for one instance, wrote him the often quoted letter of advice as to the order in which his books should be read by a young man about to begin on them. He has enjoyed a long friendship with so wise a critic as Edmund Gosse. Here, gathered together as "in a pavilion far from the strife of tongues," are records of the persons, places, books, paintings, and ideas that have been most important to one human being.

ZOFF, OTTO. *Great Composers*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1951. 510 pp. \$6.00. This volume is a collection of personal memories of the great composers, written by friends, enemies, pupils, critics, and admirers. There are intimate stories of Mozart, Beethoven, Karl Czerny, Huttenbrenner, Schubert, Gershwin, etc. Here are 112 eye-witness accounts of 24 great composers at work and at play. Preceding each vignette is a short, concise account of the composer's life at the time.

Pamphlets for Pupil and Teacher Use

Adult Education Association, 50 East Huron St., Chicago 11, Ill., Publications of:

Education for Active Adult Citizenship. 16 pp. Reprinted from *Teachers Record*, Columbia University, Oct. 1951.

The Fund for Adult Education. 16 pp. An explanation of the purposes and uses of the fund. (Headquarters for FAE is at 914 E. Green St., Pasadena, Calif.)

Preparation for a Constructive Approach to Later Maturity. 7 pp. Reprinted from *Teachers College Record*, Nov. 1951.

All Their Powers. New York 17: Health Information Foundation, 420 Lexington Ave. 1951. 30 pp. Adapted from five documentary NBC broadcasts—"Living—1951." Five dramatic, real stories of communities which found solutions to problems of community health.

Arlington Schools. Arlington, Va.: Supt. of Schools. 1951. 56 pp. A bulletin showing what was accomplished administratively during 1950—1951. A progress report of new and changing aspects of education in a fast-expanding community. A report to taxpayers on how funds were expended in services for the students. How the community uses the schools and takes part in school affairs.

- The Assembly Program as a Learning Experience.* Washington 6: Dept. of Elem. Sch. Prin., NEA, 1201 16th St., N.W. Dec. 1951. 40 pp. 50¢. Assemblies that are co-operative and enjoyable learning experiences for the lower grades.
- Atomic Education: Chicago's Challenge.* Chicago 80: United States Atomic Energy Commission, Chicago Operations Office, P. O. Box 6140A. 1952. 133 pp. A chronicle of the Institute for information and guidance of others who may desire to conduct similar projects.
- Basic Elements of a Free Dynamic Society.* New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1951. 91 pp. \$1.00. A condensed record of a round table discussion held under the sponsorship of The Advertising Council with Paul G. Hoffman as moderator.
- The Battle for Production.* Washington 25: Supt. of Doc. 1952. 52 pp. 35¢. A discussion of defense mobilization and its relation to production, material shortages, transportation, manpower, inflation, and the basic economy.
- BLOUGH, ROY. *Economics Is Everybody's Business.* New York 22: Joint Council on Economic Education, 444 Madison Ave. 1952. 8 pp. An introduction to an agency set up to assist in the organization of local and regional programs in improving the quality of economic education.
- British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y., Publications of:
British Aircraft. 35 pp. Illus.
Catalog of Films from Britain. 27 pp.
Labor and Industry in Britain. 48 pp. Tabulated statistics.
- CANHAM, ERWIN D. *The Authentic Revolution.* (Reprinted from *The Christian Science Monitor*, July 15, 1950.) 14 pp. Thesis of the lecture delivered at Yale: The struggle for the salvation of free society is basically a spiritual one.
- Catalog.* Chicago 40: Denoyer-Geppert Co., 5235-5259 Ravenswood Ave. 1952. 64 pp. Catalog of globes; wall maps; special maps for literature, social studies, science, health, air age; outline maps; equipment for mounting, projection, illustration.
- Chicago Public Schools, Office of the Supt., Chicago, Ill., Publications of:
This Is Vocation Education. 44 pp. Pictorial. The modern concept of vocational education—integrated experience with the actualities of life.
What Next for the 8A Graduate? 31 pp. A booklet to acquaint the student and his parents with educational opportunities after promotion.
- Children and Youth at Work in 1951.* New York 16: National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Ave. 23 pp. 1951. Statistical data showing the increase of young workers, desirable standards for employment, and major problems of control. Also summarizes the activities of the Committee for 1950-1951.
- Committee on International Relations, NEA, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D. C., Publications of:
Aids to Teaching About the United Nations. 1950. 36 pp.
Education for International Understanding in American Schools. 1948. 241 pp. \$1.00.
Foreign Employment Opportunities for United States Teachers. 1949.
International Aspects of Human Rights. 1950.
International Understanding. 63 pp. 25¢.
Teaching United Nations. 1949. 32 pp. \$1.00.

- Community Occupational Survey. Part I—"Interpretation and Recommendations."* 37 pp. Part II—"Statistical Summary." 67 pp. Toms River, N. J.: Dora A. Ames, Guidance Director, Toms River Schools. A step-by-step description of a survey undertaken to evaluate guidance services and curriculum in terms of community life.
- CONNELLY, T. R. *The Registrar.* Newark, N. J.; Washington Irving Pub. Co., 120-122 Ridge St. 1951. 83 pp. A summary of the nature of the work, problems, and duties of the admissions officer.
- Co-operative Test Catalog, 1952.* Princeton, N. J.: Educational Testing Service, 20 Nassau St. 84 pp. Free. Contains complete descriptions of the tests, programs, and services which will be offered in 1952 by the Co-operative Test Division.
- Course of Study in Geography for Secondary Schools.* (Bulletin 412.) Harrisburg, Pa.: State Dept. of Public Instruction. 1951. 334 pp. A guide to the improvement of geography education in terms of present-day needs and responsibilities of youth and society. Presented from the practical viewpoint of the classroom teacher.
- CRARY, R. W., and STEIBEL, G. L. *How You Can Teach About Communism.* (Freedom Pamphlets.) New York 10: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith. 1951. 48 pp. 25¢. A teaching guide for handling major issues confronting classrooms today. With suggested readings.
- DAVIS, IRA C. *Directed Study Guide and Manual to Accompany Davis and Sharpe's Science.* New York: Henry Holt and Co. Rev. 1951. 194 pp. The 97 exercises (19 units) in this study guide and manual are arranged to accompany the textbook *Science*. Some of the exercises give directions and questions for studying an assignment; some give directions and questions to assist in developing scientific attitudes; some give plans for solving problems by means of pupil activities and demonstrations; and some give a method of solving problems by use of the scientific method. The book also contains a set of review and test questions for each chapter. A wide variety of charts and drill materials is supplied with many of the exercises.
- Denver Public Schools, Denver, Colo., Publications of:
- American History Charts.* Charts summarizing problems, events, and basic concepts and understandings about five major eras in American History. Notebook charts, 11" by 16". 25¢.
- American History Guide.* Senior High. Mimeo. 1949. \$1.50.
- Art Guide, Part I. Secondary.* Mimeo. 1948. \$3.50.
- Art Guide, Part II. Secondary.* Mimeo. 1948. \$1.25.
- Cumulative Pupil Record.* With manual. Mimeo. 1941. 50¢.
- Denver Serves Its Children.* Print. 1948. A handbook of school and community resources for use of parents and teachers.
- Education of Denver's Exceptional Children.* Education of hearing, sight saving and developmental children. 50¢.
- Effective Learning.* Junior high. Print. 1949. Problems of teaching and learning in dialogue form. 75¢.
- Expected Achievement Grade Placement Tables for Use in Grades 1-12.* Print. 1951. Charts showing expected achievements and grade placement of children in the Denver Public Schools in relation to their chronological and mental ages.

- Manual for Using the Form for P & D and I U.* Print. 1949. Junior high. 25¢.
- Guidance.* Junior high. Print. 1950. Guidance techniques—teacher use. \$2.00.
- Health Interests of Children.* Kdg.—Grade 12. Print. 1946. Research study. \$1.50.
- Language Skills for Americans, Grade 7.* Print. 1951. English workbook for use in the junior high school. \$1.25.
- Language Skills for Americans, Grade 8.* Print. 1951. English workbook for use in the junior high school. \$1.25.
- Music Guide.* Junior high. \$2.50.
- Mathematics Program of the Denver Public Schools.* Kdg.—Grade 12. 1951. \$2.50.
- Physical Education Guide—Girls.* Junior high. Multilith. 1950. \$4.50.
- Physical Education Guide.* Senior high. Mimeo. 1949. \$4.50.
- Planning and Developing a Life Experience Unit.* Mimeo. Chapter IV of the Social Living Guide. \$1.00.
- Speaking of Books.* High school. Print. 1941. An instructional manual on use of libraries. \$1.00.
- Toward Better Reading.* Junior, Senior high. Print. 1945. A guide for teachers in improving reading ability of pupils. \$1.00.
- Words With Wings.* Techniques and materials for improving speaking, writing, and reading. \$1.25.
- The Department of State Today.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1951. 33 pp. 15¢. Describes foundations and functions of the Department of State.
- Dietetics as a Profession.* Chicago 11: American Dietetic Association, 620 N. Michigan Ave. 1951. 32 pp. 25¢ single copy, \$20 for 100, and \$50 for 300.
- Dismissals in Fort Myers, Florida.* Washington 6, D. C.: NEA. 1951. 24 pp. An investigation of employment procedures which caused community disturbance.
- Education and National Security.* Washington 6, D. C.: NEA. 1951. 50¢. (Quantity discounts.) Deals with the role of education at all levels in a period of partial mobilization and makes very specific recommendations regarding an educational solution to the military manpower problem. A significant statement on the subject of education and national security.
- Education in Rural and City School Systems.* (Circ. No. 329). Washington 25: Supt. of Doc. 1952. 13 pp. 15¢. Statistical indices for 1947–1948.
- Effect of the Defense Program on Employment Outlook in Engineering.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1951. 13 pp. 15¢. These are the highlights of a report recently issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The new report supplements and brings up to date the chapter on engineering in the Occupational Outlook Handbook, as well as the sections on employment trends and outlook in the Bureau's Bulletin No. 968, "Employment Outlook for Engineers" (50¢). It may also be used in connection with Wall Chart No. 10 revised (issued January 1951).
- Effect of Defense Program on Employment Situation in Elementary and Secondary School Teaching.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1951. 14 pp. 15¢. The shortage of elementary school teachers is even more acute this year than last. Although more students completed preparation for elementary school teaching in June 1951 than in any other year since World War

II, the number of qualified new teachers is far less than is needed. More than 25,000 new teachers were required to take care of the added enrollments in the grade schools this fall. A still larger number will be required during the school year to replace those leaving the school rooms. The teaching profession has always suffered losses of personnel during periods of full employment when college-trained workers are in great demand. Defense mobilization is already increasing the withdrawal rate of teachers in most localities, and it is expected that further losses will occur throughout the country as defense production expands. These are some of the findings contained in the new occupation outlook report which supplements and brings up to date an earlier bulletin (No. 972) which discusses the long-range employment prospects in teaching, and gives information on training requirements, earnings, and related subjects on a State-by-State basis.

Employment Outlook in Department Stores. Bulletin No. 1020. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1951. 23 pp. 20¢. This study was prepared for use in the vocational guidance of veterans and young people in schools and colleges. It presents detailed information about long-range employment opportunities, duties, training, earnings, and working conditions in all the important occupations in department stores.

The Financing of State Departments of Education. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1951. 83 pp. 45¢. Provides basic information on current practices for all states, analyzes common elements of development, and sets forth basic issues which are yet unresolved. Helpful to State legislators, members of state boards of education, chief State school officers and their staffs, students of administration, and others concerned with State financial administration.

Fourth Annual Report of the Board of Trustees of the State University of New York. Albany 1, N. Y.: Room 138, State Capitol. 1952. 17 pp. plus XIII. "The 1951 annual report of the State University Board of Trustees is probably the most important statement of policy ever made by this Board. In it we have set forth our views on the future of this venture in public higher education. In addition we have reviewed our chief accomplishments and our chief disappointments."

Franco-American Audio-Visual Distribution Center, Inc., 934 Fifth Ave., New York 21, N. Y., Publications of:

The French Heritage. 41+10 pp. 12¢. A catalog of 2x2 lantern slides (kodachromes and black and white) from documents in the national libraries and museums and from private collections on history, literature, and social life from the Middle Ages to the 20th Century.

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The Center operates on both a loan and a sale basis. Rental is \$1.50 per series or \$10.00 yearly for regular borrowing privileges. Kodachrome lantern slides may be purchased for \$1.00 each with 10% discount for 31-50 and 20% off for over 50. Black and white slides are 50¢ each with the same discounts. Photographic prints will be made to specific size by special order. Price list on request.

Freshman Composition Courses in Twelve Illinois Colleges. Urbana, Ill.: Illinois English Bulletin, 121 Lincoln Hall. Nov. 1951. 24 pp. 25¢. (Sub-

scription price per year, \$2.00.) Summaries of courses in freshman composition in junior college, teachers college, liberal arts colleges, and universities of Illinois.

GILBERT, C. B.; BETZNER, J.; and McLAUGHLIN, T. J. *Learning to Live: Basic Relationships of Life; a Booklist for Supplementary Reading in the Combined Book Exhibit*. New York 52: Combined Book Exhibit, 950 University Ave. 1951. Free. A bibliography based on the developmental needs of young people. A help for educators working in guidance and book selection for young people. Selected, classified, graded, annotated. Exhibited at the 1951 meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English.

Growth Through Guidance. Wilmington, Del.: Supt. of Schools. 1951. Rev. 77 pp. Guidance policies, procedures, and services, including a handbook for counselors.

Guide for Resource-Use Education Workshops. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Mass. Ave., N.W. 1951. 45 pp. 50¢. Ways of planning, operating, and evaluating the workshop in resource-use education.

Handbook of the Utah High School Activities Association. (1951-1952) Salt Lake City, Utah: 19 West South Temple. 26 pp. A review of activities and an aid in administering and supervising activities. Contains constitution, auditor's report, athletic accident benefit report, summaries of speech and music festivals.

Health Education Materials. Raleigh, N. C.: Health Publications Institute, Inc., 216 N. Dawson St. 1951. 31 pp. A price list of printed and audiovisual materials on health.

HOLLEMAN, T. R. *Air Flow Through Conventional Window Openings*. (No. 33) College Station, Texas: Texas Engineering Experiment Station, Texas A and M College. 1951. 45 pp. A research report to assist manufacturers, architects, and school districts in improving window designs for school buildings, particularly in the Southwest and Midwest.

Homemakers in the Defense Program. (Misc. 3403) Washington 25, D. C.: Federal Security Agency. 1952. 17 pp. Educational programs for homemakers employed full-time outside the home.

How Are Union County Schools Helping Their Children and Youth to Understand the Present and Face the Future? Plainfield, N. J.: First-Park Baptist Church. A summary report of the Union County Workshop on Education, which emphasized school-community relations and the part of citizens and parents in improving education.

How Peoples Work Together. New York, N. Y.: Manhattan Publishing Co., 225 Lafayette St. 1952. 96 pp. 75¢ each, 5-249 50¢ per copy (plus postage), 250-499 45¢ per copy (plus postage), 500 or more 40¢ per copy (plus postage). New step in program of teaching about United Nations and specialized agencies.

Indiana and Midwest School Building Planning Conference: Proceedings. Bloomington, Ind.: Ind. Univ. Bookstore. Nov. 1951. 139 pp. \$1.00. Presentations on flooring, waterproofing, heating, acoustical treatment, etc. Also on community participation, reduction of costs, trends in plans.

Instructional Films Catalog. New York 29: United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave. Descriptive listing of educational films in social studies, geography, sciences, child psychology, fine arts, and sports.

Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth. Washington 25, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Children's Bureau. 1951. 20 pp. Second and third years' work of joint committee of Federal agencies conducting programs that affect child welfare.

International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, N. Y., Publications of:
Five Years of UNICEF. 8 pp.

The Message of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. 32 pp. 15¢.

Teaching about the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies. 24 pp. 15¢.

A Junior High School Looks at UNESCO. (Dept. of State Publication 4380) Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1952. 26 pp. Ills. 15¢. Here is the story of a project undertaken by a group of students at Alice Deal Junior High School, Washington, D. C. Its purpose was to find out first if, and then how, UNESCO could become a "living reality" to boys and girls in the seventh, eighth and ninth grades. The booklet reports high points of class discussion, records some criticism of the UNESCO program, and traces the step-by-step development of the work unit.

The pamphlet also outlines a plan which the pupils undertook to acquaint their schoolmates with the work of the international organization and reviews the results of this study. The text includes winning essays, a portion of a school play, and a list of materials suggested for further information.

Labor Offices in the United States and in Canada. (Bulletin No. 147) Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards. 1951. 44 pp. A directory of offices and officers.

LEONARD, CHARLES. *Why Children Misbehave.* Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave. 1952. 48 pp. 40¢. Misbehavior is a normal part of the growing up-process.

LETTON, M. C., and RIES, A. M. *Clubs are Fun.* Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave. 1952. 48 pp. 40¢ each, 3 for \$1.00; special quantity discounts. Answers questions that youth ask about organizing and running clubs. It gives practical ideas and suggestions for group activities and will be as helpful to teachers and parents as to the boys and girls in grades 6 to 9 for whom it was written.

LEWELLEN, JOHN. *Primer of Atomic Energy.* (Life Adjustment Booklet Series) Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave. 1952. 48 pp. 40¢ each, 3 for \$1.00; special quantity discounts. A simple, graphic discussion of atomic energy—how it is released, how it is used in weapons, its possibilities for peacetime application, effects of an atomic explosion, and the control of atomic energy. The booklet discusses Civil Defense procedures and practices that will be of value in schools.

The Lindenwood Conference on International Relations. Washington 6, D. C.: Committee on International Relations, NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1951. 106 pp. \$1.00. A report on an experiment in international understanding for classroom teachers. Remarks of leaders, study guides, summaries of reports, and supplementary bibliographies on these topics: (1) U. S. Foreign Policy, (2) International Organization, (3) Nuclear Energy, (4) Food and People, (5) Human Rights, (6) The Teaching of International Understanding.

- Long Island City High School, English Department, 41st Ave. and 29th St., Long Island City 1, New York, Publications of:
Characteristics of Development of Junior High School Pupils.
Tape Recording for Schools.
School Use of Magnetic Recorders.
 1951. Instructional Bulletins. As long as supply lasts.
- Looking Ahead for Casey County Schools.* Lexington, Ky.: Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Coll. of Educ., Univ. of Ky. Dec. 1951. 48 pp. 50¢. The simple story of how people of one community looked at their schools, measured them, and took steps toward their improvement.
- MAHAFFEY, THEODORE. *Business Education in West Virginia Secondary Schools for Negroes.* Institute, W. Va.: West Virginia High School Principals Conference. 1951. 28 pp. A summary of a doctoral dissertation which emphasizes implications for business teacher education.
- Man-Made Fibers.* Wilmington, Del.: E. I. Du Pont De Nemours and Co. 1951. 32 pp. Domestic and industrial uses of synthetic yarns.
- Manual of Instructions for Preparation of CMP-4C Applications for School, College, and Library Construction.* Washington 25, D. C.: Div. of Civilian Educational Requirements, Office of Educ., Federal Sec. Agency. 1951. 10 pp. Steps to take in the procurement of supplies materials for construction projects for educational institutions. Who may apply, when to apply, where to file, and how to prepare forms for priority ratings in the Claimant Agency Program.
- Minneapolis Public School, Minneapolis 13, Minn., Publications of:
Civil Defense Guide for Minneapolis Schools. 37 pp.
Standard Rules for the Operation of School Safety Patrols in Minneapolis. 10 pp.
- Monthly Bulletin.* Hoboken, N. J.: U. S. Testing Co., Inc., 1415 Park Ave. Yearly subscription, \$3.00. Contains items on scientific testing and treating of fabrics, safe laboratory practices, special finishes and their purposes, and current fashions, which are of special interest to the home economics teacher but may also be helpful to the chemistry class or vocational groups working with textiles.
- MOORE, ARTHUR. *Underemployment in American Agriculture—A Problem in Economic Development.* (NPA Planning Pamphlet No. 77) Washington 6, D. C.: National Planning Association, 800 21st St., N.W. The United States can no longer afford the underemployment of some two million families on unproductive farms, when it is faced with manpower shortages and a rapidly growing demand for more farm products. A warning against wasted manpower and resources and suggestions for combined private and government action to promote their better use is sounded in this report.
- NEISSER, EDITH. *When Children Start Dating.* (Better Living Series) Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave. 1951. 40¢ each —3 for \$1.00. Gives parents and teachers many of the insights needed in guiding the experiences and activities young people need to form wholesome relationships with the other sex.
- Nineteenth Annual Report.* New York 18: Engineers' Council for Professional Development, 29-33 W. 39th St. 1951. 58 pp. The work of committees in screening college curricula and accrediting them when the proper standards are met; guidance program for high school students aspiring to engi-

neering careers; and guidance for the professional development of the young engineer.

Occupations—A Basic Course for Counselors. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1951. 193 pp. 45¢. Designed to aid colleges and universities in their effort to prepare counselors adequately in the science of occupations. The suggestions given will be of special value to counselor trainers, State directors of vocational education, State supervisors of occupational information and guidance, directors and staffs of schools of all types, teachers of occupations classes in high schools, and school counselors.

Of Children and Television. Cincinnati 7, Ohio: Graduate Division, Xavier University. 1951. 15 pp. Free. A study of the television viewing habits of 998 sixth and seventh grade children to discover the effect upon school achievement. Findings reveal the percentage of homes having sets, average number of hours spent watching, extent of parental control, program preferences, relation to I. Q. and health habits.

OGG, ELIZABETH. *Why Some Women Stay Single.* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 E. 38th St. 1951. 32 pp. 25¢. Although many women remain single because of unfortunate attitudes toward marriage derived from their parents, single women who want to change their situation are reminded that later experience can reverse early conditioning.

150 Million Americans. New York, N. Y.: New York Times, Office of Educational Activities. 1951. Based on a filmstrip of the same title on statistics of the U. S. Census.

Off-Post Recreation for the Armed Forces. New York 10, N. Y.: National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Ave. 1952. 31 pp. Organization and operation of community recreation for the armed forces.

Our Schools and Free Enterprise. San Diego, Calif.: Supt. of Schools, 825 Union St. 1951. 40+ pp. Annual report for 1950-1951 to parents and citizens, emphasizing the teaching of the American way of life.

The Pamphleteer Monthly. New York 1, N. Y.: The William-Frederick Press, Pamphlet Distributing Co., Inc., 313 W. 35th St. 1951. 24 pp. Subscription, \$2.00 Sept. through June. A current title record and buying guide for pamphlets. The company also maintains a service by which pamphlets on the list may be ordered from a central agency.

PERKINS, D., and CONANT, J. B. *The Story of U. S. Foreign Policy.* New York 16, N. Y.: Foreign Policy Association, 22 E. 38th St. 1952. 62 pp. 35¢. A look at the country's foreign policy in historical perspective.

Price and Wage Controls. New York 22, N. Y.: Committee for Economic Development, 444 Madison Ave. Dec. 1951. 44 pp. Attention is called to the dangers of long-continued restraints to control inflation. A clear-cut statement of the Research and Policy Committee of CED concerning production, taxation, and expenditures during the period of defense mobilization.

Primer on Communism. New York 10, N. Y.: Anti-Defamation League of B'Nai B'Rith, 212 Fifth Ave. 1951. 74 pp. 25¢. A detailed definition of Communism, its development, program, strategy, totalitarian nature, beliefs concerning labor and economy, and the world-wide movement.

Progress in the Atlantic Community. Washington 1, D. C.: Federal Union, Inc., 700 Ninth St., N.W. 1951. 40 pp. 20¢ each; 10 copies, \$1.00; 100 copies,

\$9.00. A brief clarification of existing and proposed international organizations that affect the free world.

Red Letter Days. Washington 8, D. C.: Marketing Research Services, Inc., Suite 619, 2300 Connecticut Ave., N.W. 1952. Series of 10 pamphlets for each school month, each 16 pp. Complete set, \$3.00. Each 35¢ or 3 for \$1.00. Ideas for class work and ceremonies for special days and occasions of every school month. For example: the April issue contains material for Pan American Day, Jefferson's Birthday, Arbor Day, Easter; the May number has suggestions for May Day, Child Health Day, Citizenship Day, Memorial Day; the June booklet has Flag Day and graduation programs.

Regional Reports. Chicago: National Student Association. 1951. 32 pp. In addition to regional reports of major programs and projects, there are reports of the Third Conference of International Youth Organizations called by UNESCO and of the Zagreb Peace Conference in Yugoslavia.

The School Guidance Worker. Toronto 5, Ontario, Canada: Vocational Education, University of Toronto, 371 Bloor Street West. Published monthly, October to June. Articles on counseling, personnel services, and guidance.

SCHWARTZ, PAUL. *Folk Dance Guide.* New York 3, N. Y.: Box 342, Cooper Station. 1952. 16 pp. 50¢. Contains an article on folk dancing in the U. S., a national directory of folk dance clubs, and a selected bibliography of books on national dances.

Social Studies for Young Adolescents. Washington 6, D. C.: Nat. Council for the Social Studies, 1201 16th St., N.W. 1951. 87 pp. \$1.50. Programs for junior high schools. The selection and organization of learning experiences in accord with student needs and interests. Descriptions of selected programs of instruction. Relationship between staff and community in the development of the social studies curriculum.

SOLOMON, BEN. *Speeches Made Easy.* Putnam Valley, N. Y.: Youth Service Inc. 1951. 39 pp. \$1.00. How to read a speech, introduce a speaker, deliver a speech, 100 anecdotes and quotations.

State Provisions for Financing Public-School Capital Outlay Programs. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1951. 170 pp. 40¢. Important issues in providing state funds for public school buildings. A summary of present state assistance programs.

A Study of the Teaching of Nutrition in the Public Schools. Chicago 3: Cereal Institute, Inc., 135 S. LaSalle St. 1952. 44 pp. The progress and extent of the integration of nutrition education in the curriculum. Problems facing nutrition teaching.

The Sugar Molecule. New York 5, N. Y.: Sugar Research Foundation, Inc., 52 Wall St. Fall-Winter, 1951-1952. 20 pp. (Quarterly publication. Subscriptions may be entered without charge for persons having special interest in sugar or sugar research.) Contains articles on fluoridation, the centennial of ice cream, sucrose solutions in horticulture, scientific notes.

A Summary of the Evaluation of the Aetna Roadometer Performance Test. New York, N. Y.: Board of Education, Bureau of Educational Research, Division of Tests and Measurements. 1951. 12 pp. A study of the effectiveness of the Roadometer, a device which simulates actual driving conditions, in the driver education program.

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Summary Report. New York 22, N. Y.: Joint Council on Economic Education, 444 Madison Ave. The story of four years of sustained achievement in equipping teachers to deal, effectively, in the classroom, with economic problems and an account as well as many local and regional efforts which, at the adult level, have heightened understanding of the practical economics of our American life.

The Superintendent, the Board, and the Press. Washington 6, D. C.: AASA, 1201 16th St., N.W. 1951. 24 pp. 25¢. Suggestions for helping schoolmen and newsmen work together.

Teachers Contribute to Child Health. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1951. 44 pp. 20¢. The teacher's responsibility in health services and for providing a healthful school environment; important factors in health instruction and professional improvement.

The United Nations and the Specialized Agencies. New York 12, N. Y.: Manhattan Publishing Co., 225 Lafayette St. Dec. 1951. 94 pp. 75¢. Stories, pictures, and maps showing how peoples work together through the specialized agencies of the UN.

Universal Military Training. Chicago 5: The Christian Century, 407 S. Dearborn St. 1951. 24 pp. 10¢ each; 15 for \$1.00; \$5 per 100. An analysis of the UMT proposals and claims. An examination of material and social costs. Steps for the people to take in stopping the threat of peacetime conscription.

A Wage Policy In Our Expanding Economy. Washington 6, D. C.: Congress of Industrial Organizations, 718 Jackson Pl., N.W. 1952. Single copies free to high school economics and social studies teachers. To others, 50¢. This brief was prepared by the staff of the Department of Education and Research for hearings in the recent Steel Case and was presented to the Board by Stanley H. Ruttenberg, Director of the Department.

Wall Charis. New York 22, N. Y.: Institute of Life Insurance, 488 Madison Ave. 15¢ each. Teacher's guides, providing background information and explaining the significance of the concepts illustrated, are free.

Life Insurance Dollars at Work.

How Life Insurance Policies Meet Family Needs.

How America's Families Use Life Insurance.

How Families Buy Life Insurance.

History of 10,000 Life Insurance Policyholders.

WOLFBELN, S. L., and GOLDSTEIN, H. *Our World of Work.* (Life Adjustment Booklet Series) Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave. 1951. 40¢ each—3 for \$1.00. Discusses for young people, how the world of work has changed in the past fifty years, what industries employ today's sixty million workers—offers interesting facts about workers in the major occupational fields, and presents data on trends for the future.

Women's Bureau, U. S. Dept. of Labor, Washington 25, D. C., Publications of:
Community Problems Relating to the Increased Employment of Women in Defense Areas. Nov. 1951. 15 pp.

Employment of Women in An Emergency Period. May 1951. 14 pp.

The Job at Home. 43 pp.

Why Do Women Work. (Leaflet 11).

Women As Workers. (A Statistical Guide). Sept. 1950. 14 pp.

Words for Work. Boston 10: Jewish Vocational Service of Greater Boston, 72 Franklin St. 60¢ per copy in quantities up to 25, and 50¢ per copy in larger

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YAHRAES, HERBERT. *Something Can Be Done About Chronic Illness*. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 E. 38th St. 1951. 32 pp. 25¢. Introducing the pamphlet, Dr. Leonard W. Mayo, chairman of the Commission on Chronic Illness, declares that "the problem can be solved only with the full co-operation of the medical profession and the public health and welfare officials working together.... Its solution is dependent not only on the professions, but on the community leadership that in this country is responsible for producing such medical care facilities as hospitals, diagnostic centers, and home care programs."

Young Germany—Apprentice to Democracy. (Dept. of State No. 4251) Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1951. 78 pp. 35¢. Reviews the American-sponsored programs for the re-education of German youth and the problems being encountered.

News Notes

HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMAS TO PERSONS IN THE ARMED FORCES—The Massachusetts State Legislature recently passed two acts which relate to the issuance of high-school diplomas to persons in the armed forces. The one Act (Chapter 67) provides for the granting of diplomas to certain high-school students who enter the armed services of the United States. Section 34C reads as follows: "Notwithstanding any provision of law to the contrary, any person who enters the armed services of the United States during the time of war or during a period of national emergency by declaration of the President of the United States and was, as of the scholastic mid-year date of the same year, a student in good standing in the senior year in any public high school, shall be granted a diploma forthwith and shall for all purposes be considered to have completed his entire high-school course."

The other Act authorizes high-school credits for courses of instruction taken and satisfactorily completed by any student during his service in the armed forces of the United States. This act states that any present or former member of any of the armed forces of the United States who attends any high school in the Commonwealth may be given full credit by the school committee, toward the requirements for graduation therefrom, for any and all courses of instruction taken and satisfactorily completed by him during his service as such member.

EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP—The December, 1951, issue of *Phi Delta Kappan* is devoted entirely to the subject of Education for Citizenship. This issue will be found quite helpful to the schools in doing a better job of education for citizenship. A wide range of articles are included. Some of these articles are: "Education For Better Citizenship," "Ideals of American Organizations," "The Citizens Rights and Duties," "Problems in Solving Citizenship Education," and "Needed Research in Education for Citizenship." Also included are accounts of citizenship projects that are underway in Cambridge, Massachusetts, Detroit, Michigan, Kansas State Department of

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Starred (*) publications above are available at a school discount of 25 per cent from the list price. All other publications listed are available at the following discounts: 2-9 copies, 10%; 10-99 copies, 25%; 100 or more copies, 33 1/3%.

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Education, and Syracuse, New York. Included also is an article entitled "A Citizenship Training Inventory." This article for senior high schools includes a listing of criteria as developed from current literature and some inquiries among eighty co-operating schools. The inventory is divided into seven parts: A. Course of Study (33 major items) B. Teaching Methods (29 major items) C. Student Life (34 major items) D. Community Activities (12 major items) E. School Administration (16 major items) F. Evaluation of Results (22 major items) and G. General Policies (7 major items). A school may use this in making an analysis of its program. Each particular item is judged on the basis of strong, good, fair, weak, unnecessary, doubtful, detrimental, and very detrimental. By the use of this inventory a school may ascertain a composite score and thus secure a profile of its citizenship achievements. Copies of this particular issue may be secured at 50¢ each from Phi Delta Kappa, 2034 Ridge Road, Homewood, Illinois.

SALARIES OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS AND TEACHERS

SALARIES OF ADMINISTRATIVE, SUPERVISORY AND TEACHER
PERSONNEL IN 34 S. E. MISSOURI SCHOOL DISTRICTS AS
REPORTED IN THE DECEMBER, 1951, ISSUE OF
MISSOURI SCHOOLS.

Personnel	Range		
	Median	Low.	High
Superintendents	\$4,500	\$3,400	\$6,000
Principals: High School	3,188	2,400	4,200
Elementary School.....	2,555	1,710	3,600
Social Science Teachers	2,371	1,890	3,000
English	2,275	1,890	2,515
Mathematics	2,360	1,890	2,900
Commerce	2,320	1,935	4,000
Science	2,400	1,890	3,300
Health and Physical Education	2,725	2,200	3,600
Music: Vocal	2,360	2,100	4,020
Band	2,575	2,100	4,020
Vocational Agriculture	3,667	3,400	3,810
Vocational home economics.....	2,611	2,400	2,880
Industrial Arts	2,600	2,400	3,400

THE ATLANTIC COMMUNITY—One of the most striking developments of the postwar era has been the growth of organizations whose purpose is to achieve closer co-operation among national governments in economic, social, and military areas. These organizations sometimes overlap, either in membership or functions. Some are now at work, while others are awaiting approval by interested governments. Some have power to act, while others are advisory. In an effort to clarify the picture and as a part of its educational program, Federal Union, Inc. has prepared a series of outlines, in booklet form, of some of these international organizations that affect the free world. These include *The Schuman Plan* (for a European Coal and Steel Community), *The OEEC* (the Organization for European Economic Co-operation), *The Council of Europe* (for a united Europe), *The NATO* (the North Atlantic Treaty Organiza-

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tion), *The Plevan Plan* (proposed European defense), and *The Atlantic Union Plan* (for a union of democracies). In addition, a summary of each of these six booklets has been prepared under the title of *Progress in the Atlantic Community*. All these publications have been prepared by Helen Moodie. Single copies of each of these may be secured free from Federal Union, Inc., 700 Ninth Street, N. W., Washington 1, D. C.

STATISTICS FOR SCHOOLMEN—The American people spend about four per cent of their consumer budget for medical care. This proportion has been constant for the past twenty years.... Thirty-one high schools in New York City teach Hebrew as an accredited subject. Total enrolment is 6,000.... During 1950, some 1,198 institutions of higher learning reported they had available 141,554 scholarships worth \$31,000,000. Some of these were valued as little as \$35 to \$50; others as high as \$2,000.... A Gallup poll showed recently that 57 per cent of the American people gamble either on bingo, cards, punchboard, sport events, slot machines, horse racing, sweepstakes, elections and the number game—in that order.... Ten per cent more Americans went to Europe last year than the year before. Air travel to that continent increased 14 per cent; sea travel, 8 per cent.... Steel mills turned out a record 9,000,000 tons in October. There is an ample supply of ingot steel; a shortage of structural steel, which has to be processed from ingot.... The number of alcoholics and excessive drinkers has doubled the last 8 years to a total of 7,000,000.

EMPLOYMENT, EDUCATION, AND EARNINGS OF AMERICAN MEN OF SCIENCE—As a result of the acute shortage of engineering and scientific personnel which has developed since 1950, young people are more interested than ever in a scientific career. The Bureau of Labor Statistics, in co-operation with the Department of Defense, has just published a bulletin which reports the salient facts concerning the education and experience of the Nation's leading scientists. The study, "Employment, Education, and Earnings of American Men of Science," covers 42,000 of the 50,000 scientists listed in the 1949 edition of the biographical directory "American Men of Science." The information was collected for the Department of Defense by the National Research Council, in co-operation with the publisher of the Directory.

The scientists studied were predominantly research workers. Next to research, teaching was the activity most often reported. Chemists were by far the largest group, comprising about one fourth of the scientists listed in the directory. The biologists were second. The engineers were third, although the total number of engineers in the country exceeds the total number of professional workers in all other scientific fields combined. The relatively small proportion of engineers included reflects the fact that a large proportion of all engineers are engaged in administration, production, or development work rather than in scientific research.

Educational institutions were the principal field of employment for these leading scientists, with private industry second and government third. Thirty-seven per cent were employed solely by universities and colleges at the time of the survey, and an additional 13 per cent combined education with some other type of employment. The proportion of scientists working exclusively for private industry was 27 per cent, for government agencies 14 per cent.

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One of the main purposes of the survey was to provide a roster of the outstanding individuals in every branch of natural science; about two thirds of the Nation's Ph.D.'s in the natural sciences are covered. The small proportion of scientists in the survey who did not have doctorates in most cases held either master's or M.D. degrees.

Salary levels of scientists with the Ph.D. degree were considerably lower in colleges and universities than in either government or private industry. Earnings were highest in private industry not only for the entire group of scientists but also for those in each age group, in every scientific field, and in every region of the country. For Ph.D.'s in all specialties taken together, the median salary in private industry was \$7,070 a year, in government \$6,280 a year, and in education \$4,860.

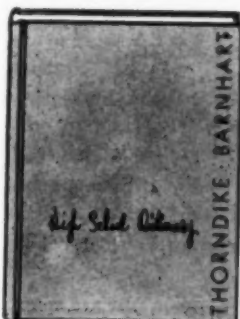
The Ph.D. engineers had the highest median salary and the biologists the lowest in every type of employment. So important, however, was the difference in salary levels as between one type of employer and another that the biologists working for business firms tended to earn more than the engineers on the college campus. Supplementary professional incomes were reported by a much larger proportion of the educators than of the scientists employed in either private industry or government. However, this extra income by no means made up the difference in salary levels between education and other employment. The report, "Employment, Education, and Earnings of American Men of Science" may be obtained from the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY BUYS HARPER'S HIGH SCHOOL BOOK LIST—The McGraw-Hill Book Company purchased the high-school book list of Harper and Brothers on Jan. 2, Curtis G. Benjamin, Book Company president has announced. McGraw-Hill will start billing and shipping the books on that date. The transfer includes all inventory and publishing rights for a list of about 80 titles used in junior and senior high schools. Their subjects include science, mathematics, social studies, English, and modern languages. With this transfer, Harper's discontinues all high-school book operations.

WHAT DO THE PARENTS THINK?—School authorities in Jacksonville, Illinois, long concerned with community feelings about local education, decided to find out just what parents thought about their schools and teachers. They mailed a special questionnaire called *The Illinois Inventory of Parent Opinions*, to 1,500 Jacksonville families, and the answers from them were tabulated and published. The purpose was to bring about closer co-operation between the school and homes in order to provide the best educational opportunities for the children and youth of the community. The study was a joint project of the Parent-Teacher Association, the school staff, and the Board of Education. The findings of the questionnaire are being studied by a committee of parents and teachers and recommendations will be made for improving the school program.

Answering one question on what the school should do more about, parents asked for (1) more emphasis on teaching pupils to get along with each other; (2) more study on how to use money wisely; and (3) more teacher study of abilities, aptitudes, and interests of pupils as a basis for helping them choose their life's work. Of those queried, 84 per cent felt the school should try to help youth with social problems met in everyday life. When asked if school services should be cut or taxes raised, 61 per cent of the parents declared for increased taxes—only six per cent wanted to see services cut.

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Editor of the new *High School Dictionary* is Clarence L. Barnhart who worked with Dr. E. L. Thorndike on the original Thorndike Dictionaries. Mr. Barnhart, also the editor of *The Thorndike-Barnhart Comprehensive Desk Dictionary* and the *American College Dictionary*.

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The Board of Education through its superintendent, D. R. Blodgett, has recently published a 20-page pamphlet which reports the finds of this study.

Education—An American Heritage

WE, THE PEOPLE of New York State, believing in the equality of opportunity for all and realizing that education is fundamental to our democratic way of life, do hereby recognize and accept these basic premises:

- **that every youth shall be afforded the opportunity to obtain at least a high school education;
- **that every youth shall have the fullest opportunity for moral and ethical development in keeping with our American heritage;
- **that every youth has certain needs and responsibilities that are common to all youth and to the perpetuation of our democratic society;
- **that every youth, as a person of inherent worth, differs from every other young person in respect to health, mental ability, interests and background.

Since these premises are self-evident to those who have faith in our democracy, it becomes necessary that our high schools provide:

- **a program of studies in general education that will insure the unity of our people for the common good;
- **diversified experiences and educational services that will meet the educational, vocational and avocational needs of our youth;
- **a variety of standards flexible enough to permit each to succeed according to his own ability;
- **counseling that will help young people make intelligent choices beneficial to self and society;
- **those services that will assist youth to be physically and mentally healthy;
- **qualified teachers, extended research and expanded facilities to meet more effectively the changing demands on education.

Recognizing that the school is but one segment of our complex society requiring the full support of the community, we conceive it our duty as citizens of New York State to provide for the full support of these schools to guarantee each youth his American Heritage.

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**TOTAL NUMBER AND PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN
SUBJECTS IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA JUNIOR HIGH
SCHOOLS AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS AS OF
JUNE 1950 AND 1951.**

Subject	Junior High School				Senior High School			
	June 1950		June 1951		June 1950		June 1951	
	No. En-rolled	% of Member-ship	No. En-rolled	% of Member-ship	No. En-rolled	% of Member-ship	No. En-rolled	% of Member-ship
No. of Different Students	9,006		8,795		7,796		6,946	
Art	8,089	89.8	8,004	91.0	934	12.0	669	9.6
Business								
Education	4,733	52.6	4,815	54.7	4,487	57.6	4,409	63.5
English	9,121	101.3	8,892	101.1	8,299	106.5	7,595	109.3
Health & Phys. Educ.	9,060	100.6	9,000	102.3	10,526	135.0	9,203	132.5
Home								
Economics	3,521	39.1	3,186	36.2	2,018	25.9	1,972	28.4
Latin	1,176	13.1	1,098	12.5	739	9.5	653	9.4
Manual Arts	2,837	31.5	2,934	33.4	1,951	25.0	1,602	23.1
Mathematics	7,995	88.8	7,886	89.7	3,393	43.5	3,072	44.2
Modern								
Languages	1,792	19.9	1,596	18.1	2,444	31.3	2,064	29.7
Music	9,224	102.4	9,187	104.5	1,463	18.8	1,183	17.0
Science	5,572	61.9	5,440	61.9	4,115	52.8	3,826	55.1
Social Studies	8,703	96.6	8,593	97.7	5,811	74.5	5,052	72.7
Total Subject Enrollment	71,823		70,631		46,180		41,300	

EASTERN ARTS ASSOCIATION CONVENTION—The 40th annual convention of The Eastern Arts Association will be held at the Ambassador Hotel in Atlantic City, New Jersey, April 16-19, 1952. The theme of the convention is, "The Challenge to Art Education in a Scientific Age." The relationships of art education to other spheres of activity in present-day living will be discussed broadly by noted educators and scientists from various parts of the country. A highlight of the four-day sessions will be a telecast of an art program by the Philadelphia schools, followed by a discussion on the techniques used and the problems involved in such a production. Workshops, conferences,

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films, exhibits, and demonstrations of techniques and processes will be featured with new media and materials. For additional details on the convention program, inquiries should be directed to Mrs. Lillian D. Sweigart, Secretary of the Eastern Arts Association, State Teachers College, Kutztown, Penna.

NHS SCHOLARSHIPS—Since 1946 the National Honor Society has annually conducted a National Scholarship program for high-school seniors planning to enter college. To date over \$52,000 has been awarded in scholarships to 90 students and in awards to 40 students. The following table shows by years the number of schools and students participating, and the number and value of scholarships and awards granted.

Year	No. Schools Participating	No. Students Participating	Scholarships		Awards	
			No. awarded	Value of each	No. awarded	Value of each
1946	1,274	5,201	10	\$300	0	..
1947	1,292	4,968	10	\$300	0	..
1948	1,362	5,580	10	\$300	0	..
1949	1,492	5,915	10	\$300	0	..
1950	1,702	6,544	5	\$400		
			20	\$200	20	\$50
			5	\$400		
1951	1,671	6,442	5	\$400		
			20	\$200	20	\$50

CONSUMER EDUCATION MATERIALS—The Consumer Education Department of the Household Finance Corp., 919 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago 11, Illinois, has a number of booklets and filmstrips dealing with aspects of consumer education. Some of the booklets which sell for ten cents each are: Your Budget, Your Health Dollar, Your Food Dollar, Your Clothing Dollar, The Recreation Dollar, Your Shopping Dollar, Time Management for Homemakers, Cosmetics, Soap and Other Detergents, Shoes, Furniture, and Home Heating. Filmstrips which sell for \$4.00 for black and white and \$6.00 for color include: Budgeting for Better Living; Mrs. Consumer Considers Credit; What is Your Shopping Score?; Dressing Well Is a Game; Take Time to Make Time; How Does She Do It?; Spending Your Food Dollars; Buying Processed Foods; Buying Dairy Products, Fats and Oils; Buying Meats, Fish, Poultry, and Eggs; and Buying Fruits and Vegetables.

FIFTH UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONFERENCE—"Languages in World Leadership" will be the theme of the Fifth University of Kentucky Foreign Language Conference, April 24-26, 1952. The three lecturers will be: Nicholson B. Adams, Professor of Spanish, University of North Carolina; Louis E. Lord, President, Bureau of University Travel, and Head Emeritus, Department of Classics, Oberlin College; and R. O. Roeseler, Head, Department of Germanic Languages and Literature, University of Wisconsin, and Editor of *Monatshefte*. Approximately one hundred sixty scholars and teachers will read papers on the various sections: Classical, Teaching of High School Latin, French, German, Spanish, Biblical and Patristic, Comparative Literature, Teaching of High School French and Spanish, Slavonic, and Linguistics. The Linguistics Sections are a new addition to this year's program. Programs may be had from the Director, Professor Jonah W. D. Skiles,

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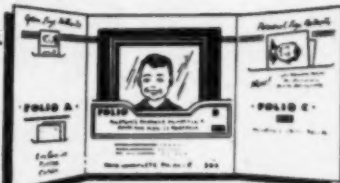
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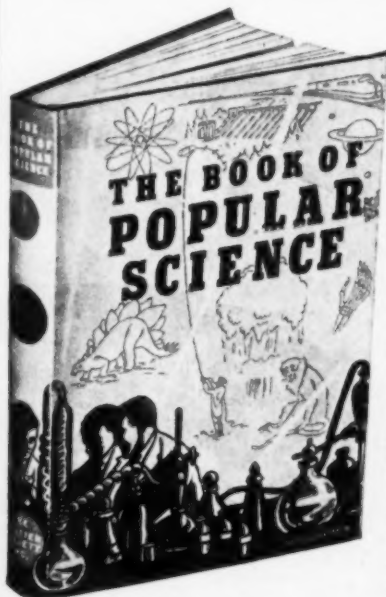
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